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ABSTRACT

In 1989, the Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) celebrated its silver anniversary at a conference designed to provide participants with an opportunity both to reflect on the past and to look at the future of foreign language teaching and of SCOLT in the light of a quarter century of experience. Seven of the papers in this volume were selected from previous writings that illustrate the trends and issues that have helped shape the direction of foreign language education over the past 25 years; three of the papers were chosen from those presented at the 25th anniversary conference; and one paper is devoted entirely to perspectives for the future. Papers and authors are as follows: "SCOLT: The First Ten Years, 1964-1974" (Herman F. Bostick); "Language Teaching: Concepts, Problems, Opportunities," covering the period 1964-1969 (Nelson Brooks); "A World Without Walls," covering the period 1970-1974 (Lorraine A. Strasheim); "SCOLT: Years of Progress, 1975-1989" (James S. Gates); "Multi-Sensory Exercises: An Approach to Communicative Practice," covering the period 1975-1979 (Theodore B. Kalivoda); "The Reusable Communication Format," covering the period 1980-1984 (Barbara Gonzalez); "The Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency: Challenges to the Profession," covering the period 1985-1989 (Albert Valdman); "Using Authentic Materials To Develop Functional Proficiency in Writing" (John I. Liantas); "Loosening the Leash on Writing: The Adult Language Learner" (Carol Strauss-Sotiropoulos); "A New Approach toward Foreign Language TA Supervision" (Ken Fleak and Carolyn Hansen); and "SCOLT: Perspectives for the Future, 1990+" (Robert Terry). References are provided with individual papers. (LB)

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PERSPECTIVES AND HORIZONS DIMENSION: LANGUAGES '89

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REPORT OF SOUTHERN CONFERENCE
ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

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PERSPECTIVES AND HORIZONS DIMENSION: LANGUAGES '89

Edited by
T. BRUCE FRYER and FRANK W. MEDLEY, JR.

REPORT OF SOUTHERN CONFERENCE
ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Review and Acceptance Procedure SCOLT Dimensions

The procedure through which articles are reviewed and accepted for publication in the proceedings volume of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) actually begins with the submission of a proposal to present a conference session, which includes an abstract. Once the proposal is received, it is read by a committee of three, and then--should the committee make a preliminary recommendation of acceptance--it is read by the entire 10-member Board of Directors, and either accepted or rejected.

Once the session proposal has been accepted, the presenter is invited to submit an article based on the oral presentation. The articles received are then submitted, with the authors' names removed, to a nationally prominent Editorial Board, and are read by at least three of these specialists. Normally articles are sent to reviewers who have expertise in the area treated by the article. The reviewers are asked to make one of three recommendations: 1) publish as is; 2) publish after rewriting; or 3) do not publish. Once these recommendations are received, the Co-Editors read each article and make the final decision whether or not to publish. As a result of this procedure, thirteen (13) individuals decide whether or not to include the oral presentation, and then a different five (5) people read and approve the article before it is selected to appear in Dimension.

It is the policy of SCOLT to discourage conference presenters from "reading papers," and Dimension authors from attempting to publish their oral presentations. As a result, the articles ultimately accepted for publication in the volume reflect a quality of style and content found in other refereed professional journals and publications.

The procedure described above results in the inclusion of approximately one article for each six sessions presented. In summary, the process used to referee articles for publication in Dimension is comparable to the process used by some of the more widely recognized professional journals.

T. Bruce Fryer
Frank W. Medley, Jr.
Co-Editors

PREFACE

SCOLT'S TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY CELEBRATION

The commemoration of the Silver Anniversary of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching, held in Little Rock, Arkansas, was a special celebration of the first 25 years of the organization. It was a time to reflect on the past and to recognize the contributions of those who had worked diligently to lay a strong foundation for an association which would benefit foreign language educators in the Southeast. The success of their efforts has been evidenced each year through attendance at the popular annual meetings, through the growing numbers of Sponsors and Patrons, and through SCOLT's contributions to the strength of the foreign language teaching profession.

The program for SCOLT's Silver Anniversary Conference was prepared by Rosalie Cheatham, 1989 Program Chairperson. The agenda reflects the organization's growth through the number and the diversity of conference sessions.

The highlight of the Silver Anniversary Celebration was a luncheon, which was planned and organized by Laura Walker. Herman Bostick, James Gates, and Joanna Breedlove Crane, who had played critical roles in the founding of SCOLT, were on hand to describe various states of its history. Robert Terry addressed the challenges and responsibilities which lie "on the horizon."

The theme of the Twenty-Fifth Anniversary Conference, "Languages: Perspectives and Horizons," provided participants with the opportunity to look at the future of foreign language teaching and of SCOLT in view of a quarter century of experience. This volume of Dimension gives you, the reader, that same opportunity; from twenty-five years of Dimension the editors have selected articles which are representative of the important trends and issues that have helped shape the direction of foreign language education over that period of time.

In the first part of the volume, the article entitled "SCOLT: THE FIRST TEN YEARS," appears in the form of an introduction to the very beginnings of the Southern Conference on Language

Teaching. Prepared by Herman Bostick of Howard University and an eyewitness and leading force of the time, this article relates the establishment of the organization and gives some insight into the temperament of the years between 1964 and 1974.

Nelson Brooks' article, "Language Teaching: Concepts, Problems, Opportunities," describes the changes that took place during the sixties, both in the perception of language learning and in its teaching. Before the advent of the "Audio-Lingual Method," language was perceived as an element to be learned, or an important "mental exercise." Nelson Brooks and his followers introduced the teaching of language as a means of oral and written communication.

This same ten-year period was also characterized by a general lack of direction in education; students were given "freedom of choice," and experiments with "open classrooms" were being conducted. Characterizing this period is an article by Lorraine Strasheim entitled "A World Without Walls," in which foreign language educators are urged to build bridges to their students and to their colleagues in other subject areas in an effort to become "TEACHERS first, FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS second, and GERMAN, FRENCH, SPANISH, ITALIAN, RUSSIAN OR LATIN TEACHERS third."

In the second part of the volume, James S. Gates, Executive Secretary of SCOLT from 1973-1988, characterizes the years between 1975 and 1989 as "Years of Progress." He describes the growth and change in the organization during those years.

The articles chosen by the editors to represent that period also demonstrate the changes that were taking place in the approach to foreign language teaching. Theodore Kalivoda discusses the audio-motor unit in his article entitled "Multi-Sensory Exercises: An Approach to Communicative Practice." He describes the use of multi-sensory modes in communicative drills, a change from the impersonal, mechanical drills so common to the audio-lingual classroom.

In "The Reusable Communication Format," Barbara González points out the benefits of the small group format for facilitating meaningful communication at beginning levels of language learning. She discusses the characteristics of the "good" activity; Then she presents examples of six different reusable small-group communication formats.

The Proficiency Movement has highlighted the past ten years, and real changes have been made in foreign language education; proficiency has involved almost everyone in the foreign language teaching profession in some way. Albert Valdman's "The Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency: Challenges to the Profession" raises some important and thought-provoking questions regarding the Oral Proficiency Interview and the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines. Valdman concludes that our first priority "must be the development of proficiency tests which specialists in testing and second language learning believe to be sufficiently valid, reliable, and fair to be made an integral part of the training of our FL specialists, including those entrusted with the teaching of FL's as a fundamental part of a general education."

Three articles were selected from papers presented at the 25th Anniversary Conference in Little Rock form part of the years of progress. The first deals with the proficiency movement which brought with it a recognized need to use authentic materials in the teaching of foreign languages at all levels. John I. Liontas' article, "Using Authentic Materials to Develop Functional Proficiency in Writing," discusses both what writing is and is not, using the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines for writing as a basis for discussion. Liontas presents a number of practical suggestions for the teaching of writing at various levels and for the development of writing activities. The article also provides several sample activities in German, which can be adapted to any language class.

In the second 1989 article, "Loosening the Leash on Writing: The Adult Language Learner," Carol Strauss-Sotiropoulos makes a case for the teaching of writing at the beginning levels of adult classes. She characterizes the adult learner, and outlines adult learning problems and strategies. An advocate of in-class writing practice and of conferencing, the author recommends many of the native language writing workshop techniques for foreign language classes.

In the third Silver Anniversary paper, Ken Fleak and Carolyn Hansen give a comprehensive, up-to-date approach for preparing teaching assistants (TA's) to cope with the demands of the proficiency-based syllabus in "A New Approach Toward Foreign Language TA Supervision." Taking into consideration the fact that

many TA's have learned a foreign language in a traditional, teacher-centered and grammar-oriented classroom, their approach would include (1) a pre-service workshop, (2) in-service methodology courses linked to appropriate teaching assignments, and (3) systematic observations and evaluations of their performance as instructors. The training described by Fleak and Hansen affords a number of benefits to the foreign language department, to the students, to the TA's and to the foreign language faculty who participate in the training and supervision.

In the third and last part of this volume, "SCOLT: Perspectives for the Future," Robert M. Terry challenges the organization to continue to be proactive by moving ahead and addressing the concerns of the foreign language profession. Terry insists that "we must begin to provide responses to the concerns of foreign language teachers. We must support and encourage the efforts to improve not only the profession in general, but our own individual yet essential roles in foreign language teaching." He offers a charge to regional organizations which outlines their responsibilities in furthering the cause of foreign language education.

Under strong leadership and with the unselfish support of conference attendees, the Advisory Board, and the Board of Directors, the Southern Conference on Language Teaching has thrived for the past twenty-five years. The next twenty-five years promise to be even more productive. As Robert Terry put it, we are not the "new kids on the block"; SCOLT will lead the way to the twenty-first century.

Paula Fordham
SCOLT Chairperson, 1989

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SCOLT:
THE FIRST TEN YEARS
1964-1974

SCOLT: THE FIRST TEN YEARS 1964-1974

Herman F. Bostick
Howard University

INTRODUCTION

The Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) was established on December 6, 1964 in Atlanta, Georgia by a small group of foreign language educators who had come together for that purpose. Present at that initial meeting were: Louis J. Chatagnier, Huguette Chatagnier-Kiser, Oscar Haac from Emory University; Benjamin F. Hudson from Atlanta University; Elisabeth G. Epting and Sanford Newell from Converse College; Herman F. Bostick from the Georgia State Department of Education.

The meeting had been called by Herman Bostick and Louis Chatagnier to secure the endorsement and support of their five colleagues for a regional foreign language conference that would have as its principal objective to improve foreign language instruction in the schools and colleges of the South. The meeting was held at Professor Chatagnier's home.

The need for a regional conference on foreign language pedagogy was first articulated by Herman F. Bostick at a 1964 summer workshop for Georgia foreign language teachers held at Fort Valley at which Elisabeth G. Epting served as resident Foreign Language Specialist and Resource Person.

The new impetus on audiolingual proficiency in foreign language learning and the introduction of new instructional methodologies, technologies, and materials placed a heavy burden on classroom teachers, especially those in the public schools. Although highly dedicated and hardworking, many of those teachers were minimally competent in speaking the foreign languages they taught and fewer possessed any knowledge

about the new developments in foreign language pedagogy occurring in other areas of the Nation. Thus the important task at the time was to devise a way to assist in-service foreign language teachers in the South in learning about the new developments in foreign language pedagogy, instructional technology, and classroom materials. Since very few schools provided funds for teachers to attend out-of-state professional conferences, a way had to be found to bring the information to them. A regional conference on language teaching seemed to be the most efficient and expeditious way to achieve this goal.

Fortunately, in September, 1964, Louis J. Chatagnier joined the faculty of Emory University in the Division of Teacher Education. Prior to coming to Georgia, Dr. Chatagnier was a member of the faculty of Notre Dame University where he took an active role in the Indiana Foreign Language Program. Shortly after arriving at Emory, he met Herman Bostick, Georgia Foreign Language Consultant. Because of their lively interest in foreign language education, the two immediately formed a close working relationship which led to the founding of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the newly established Southern Conference on Language Teaching was to promote the improvement and articulation of foreign language instruction in schools, colleges, and universities in the South. While using other regional conferences as models, the two architects of SCOLT, Bostick and Chatagnier, believed that its organizational structure should be simple, flexible, and adapted to the character of the South: a large diverse, and, in some cases, sparsely populated rural region. SCOLT would be a conference, not an association. It would have no membership fee, only a registration fee. The Conference would be held in February to avoid competing with other state, regional, or national professional meetings of foreign language teachers. All papers presented at the Conference would be published in the SCOLT proceedings.

The early organizational structure of SCOLT consisted of two major committees: a Steering Committee and an Advisory Committee. The Steering Committee was composed of a conference chairman, a secretary, a treasurer, and twelve additional foreign language educators chosen for their academic qualifications, pedagogical expertise, interest, and commitment to

work to build a strong regional foreign language conference. The following individuals composed the first SCOLT Steering Committee: Louis J. Chatagnier, Emory University, Chairman; Herman F. Bostick, Georgia State Department of Education, Secretary; William D. Bell, McNeil Turner High School, Atlanta, Treasurer; Oscar Haac, Huguette Chatagnier-kiser, William Strozier, Emory University; Elisabeth G. Epting, Sanford Newell, Converse College; Clare Haac, Spelman College; Yvonne de Wright, Georgia State Department of Education; Gail Hutchinson, Atlanta Board of Education; Benjamin F. Hudson, Atlanta University; Karl S. Pond, Florida State University; Salvatore C. Magiafico, The Women's College of Georgia; Marie Smith, The Lovett Schools, Atlanta.

The first SCOLT Advisory Committee was composed of twenty foreign language professionals whose leadership in foreign language education was widely recognized. The members of that committee were:

Eugene M. Anderson
State Dept. of Education
Columbia, SC

Odessa E. Hicks
Dept. of Foreign Languages
The Fort Valley State College
Fort Valley, GA

Genevieve Blew
State Dept. of Education
Baltimore, MD

Jacqueline Elliott
Dept. of Languages and
Literatures
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Visiting Consultant
Georgia State Dept. of Educ.
Atlanta, GA

Sara Whitten
State Dept. of Educ.
Nashville, TN

The first Southern Conference on Language Teaching took place on February 4-6, 1965 at the Atlanta Americana Motor Hotel. Twelve hundred foreign language teachers and administrators spent two and one-half days listening to speakers, participating in discussions, and observing demonstrations of new teaching methodologies, technologies, and classroom materials by foreign language specialists and master teachers. The keynote address was given by M. Phillip Leamon, Coordinator for School Foreign Languages, Indiana University.

A unique feature of the first conference was the fact that all instructional demonstrations were performed with "live" students from the Atlanta schools. Language classes were identified in advance. The master teachers met with these classes in their schools the day prior to the opening of the Conference so that teachers and students could become acquainted. During the

conference, the students were brought to the Conference site for participation in the instructional demonstrations.

On the evening of the second day of the Conference, the SCOLT banquet was held. This was considered the high point of the Conference. In addition to the main address, there were musical and/or dramatic presentations, usually in a foreign language, by local performers. Nelson Brooks, of Yale University, author of the widely used textbook, Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice, gave the principal address. The subject of his speech was "Language Teaching: Concepts, Problems, Opportunities."

The editors of the proceedings of the first conference were Herman Bostick, Oscar Bonner, and Louis Chatagnier. This trio was soon confronted with the question of a title for the proceedings. At a working session at the home of Professor Chatagnier, the question of a title was again raised; to which Huguette Chatagnier-Kaiser suggested the title, **DIMENSION**. Her suggestion was readily accepted and the first proceedings bore the title: **Dimension: Languages 65**.

The first three conferences were financed entirely by registration fees and exhibitors fees. From time to time, the Conference leadership discussed other forms of financial support for SCOLT but took no steps to implement any of them. Building and managing a regional conference was a brand-new venture of the Steering Committee; thus, financial planning barely extended beyond preparing for the next conference.

THE INCORPORATION

At the close of the 1966 conference, Herman Bostick resigned the position of secretary to pursue doctoral study. He was replaced by Oscar Bonner, a French teacher at the Westminster Schools of Atlanta. The Steering Committee voted to incorporate and to develop a set of by-laws, and a subcommittee was appointed and charged to work out bylaws and procedures for incorporation. The members were Louis Chatagnier, Oscar Bonner, Salvatore Mangiafico, Karl Pond, Gail Hutchinson, and Sanford Newell.

The subcommittee met in Atlanta in April, 1966, and spent two days developing a set of bylaws and guidelines for incorporation. However, no action was taken until May, 1967, when the Steering Committee met in Atlanta. The Committee approved the bylaws and instructed four of its members --

George W. Wilkins, Karl S. Pond, Sanford Newell, and Louis Chatagnier -- to proceed with incorporation.

In the fall of 1967, after experiencing a financial crisis, the incorporation of SCOLT was completed and the Conference residency was established at Converse College, Spartanburg, South Carolina. Under the newly incorporated Southern Conference on Language Teaching, the bylaws established a Board of Directors, replacing the Steering Committee; and Advisory Board, replacing the Advisory Committee; and the positions of Secretary-Treasurer and Vice Chairman. The first Board of Directors was named by the three SCOLT incorporators: Sanford Newell, Karl S. Pond, and George W. Wilkins. The members were: George W. Wilkins, Jr., Jean Charron, Jacqueline Elliott, Sister Mary Magdalen Lopinto, O.P., Elisabeth G. Epting, Anthony LoRe, Theodore Anderson, Sanford Newell, Louis J. Chatagnier, Karl S. Pond, and Benjamin F. Hudson.

The first elected officers were: Louis J. Chatagnier, Chairman; Karl S. Pond, Vice Chairman; Elisabeth G. Epting, Secretary-Treasurer.

Aware of the precarious method of financing SCOLT and of its narrow escape from bankruptcy in 1967, the new Board of Directors turned its immediate attention to the task of assuring financial solvency for the Conference. It adopted a plan for soliciting conference patrons and sponsors, an idea that had been broached earlier, but never implemented. Upon payment of \$50 or more, an educational institution or organization would become a patron of the Conference for that year with the privilege of naming two representatives to the Advisory Board; and upon payment of \$25, the institution or organization would become a sponsor with the privilege of naming one representative to the Advisory Board. The Board set a goal of 50 patrons and sponsors. Seventy-eight were received. The income from patrons and sponsors supplemented that received from registration and exhibitors fees, thus providing a "cushion" against any shortfall in conference attendance or exhibitors' support.

GROWTH AND EXPANSION

The first five conferences (1965-1969) were held in Atlanta. In 1969, the Board of Directors felt that the Conference had become sufficiently strong and that it was time to move the Conference site away from Atlanta. Therefore, in 1970, the sixth conference was held in Jacksonville, Florida. The first conference

held away from Atlanta was a success and the Board of Directors adopted an alternating system for designating future conference sites with the Conference returning to Atlanta every other year.

On February 15, 1969, the last day of that conference, Atlanta was blanketed by a major snowstorm that virtually paralyzed the entire city, stranding many SCOLT attendees, some for as long as two days. In the face of this disaster and in view of the unpredictability of the weather in February, and the threat it posed for future conferences, the Board of Directors voted to change the month of the annual SCOLT meeting from February to October. However, the first conference to be held in October was in 1971 since the 1970 conference had already been scheduled and announced.

In 1972, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) chose to hold its annual meeting in Atlanta and invited SCOLT to be a co-sponsor. The meeting would be advertised as the "1972 Joint Annual Meeting of ACTFL and SCOLT." After a series of meetings between the representatives of these two organizations, an agreement was finally worked out and preparations for the joint annual ACTFL/SCOLT meeting began.

This joint annual meeting was the first joint meeting for both organizations and, therefore, was the beginning of a trend that has since become standard practice for both ACTFL and SCOLT. Furthermore, the ACTFL/SCOLT joint annual conference was a national affirmation of SCOLT as a major regional conference on language teaching.

To hammer out an agreement for a joint meeting for two organizations as different as ACTFL and SCOLT was no small accomplishment. The two negotiators for SCOLT were Herman F. Bostick, 1972 Chairman, and Elisabeth G. Epting, Secretary-Treasurer. Representing ACTFL were Gail Hutchinson, President, and C. Edward Scebold, Executive Secretary. The 1972 ACTFL/SCOLT Joint Annual meeting was a huge success, having had the largest attendance than any previous annual meeting of ACTFL.

In 1973, Elisabeth G. Epting retired from the position of Secretary-Treasurer, a post she had filled for six years with a dedication and efficiency that can hardly be matched in the annals of any professional organization. Under her watchful eye, thorough recordkeeping and astute business management, SCOLT evolved from a fledgling, nearly-bankrupt conference to one that was financially solvent and professionally strong. She

had been one of the strong pillars of the Conference since the days when it was just an idea in Fort Valley, Georgia, to its founding in Atlanta in December, 1964, to a member of the Steering Committee and of the Board of Directors. She is one of two individuals whose tenure in office in SCOLT spanned the entire first ten years of the Conference's existence. Upon Professor Epting's retirement, the Board of Directors elected James S. Gates, of Spelman College, Secretary-Treasurer.

The retirement of Elisabeth Epting and the election of James Gates as Secretary-Treasurer marked the end of the first decade in the life of SCOLT. This decade was not without difficulties and setbacks for the Conference. But the foreign language profession in the South and Nation owe a great debt of gratitude to those pioneers in foreign language education who established SCOLT and guided its destiny during the first decade. They were mainly teachers who had a vision for foreign language teaching and learning, especially in the South, and who had the courage and tenacity to make that vision a reality in the form of SCOLT. Their love and dedication to the Conference was indeed exemplary. Most of the makers and shapers of SCOLT served without compensation of any kind, the SCOLT treasury being too meager to afford such luxury and very few of their institutions, if any, provided them financial assistance. Yet there were very few meetings of the Steering Committee or the Board of Directors that did not have full attendance. The members came and they worked cheerfully in a spirit of collegiality.

In 1975, SCOLT entered its second decade. Its leadership was passed to a new generation of teachers and educators. New changes and new developments have been achieved or are in progress, but a discussion of them must be reserved for a later chapter.

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1964-1969

LANGUAGE TEACHING: CONCEPTS, PROBLEMS, OPPORTUNITIES

(Reprinted from Dimension: 1965)

Nelson Brooks
Yale University

At this point we pause for a brief time to shift the focus of our thought. We turn away, momentarily, from close-ups of theoretical pro and con and exact detail of practical procedure, and instead we enlarge our perspective in an attempt to see our mission steady and see it whole.

Who are we, here assembled? And what is it that brings us together at this time and in this place? I take it that we are language teachers primarily interested in putting our students in control of a language other than their mother tongue. I take it that what brings us here is the awareness that there is about our assignment something new, something profound, and something urgent. I take it that we are also aware that in what is new there is at the same time something very old, in what is profound there is also something ever present and attainable, and in what is urgent there is a tolerance toward what is achieved only through slow growth. It is my purpose to explore with you at least some of the ways in which these attributes apply in the problems and the opportunities that present themselves in our day-by-day relationships with our students in our language classrooms.

NEW UNDERSTANDING

A mere list of what is new in our field is impressive. We have, first of all, a new understanding of what language is and how it works. We have new objectives that state the purpose of our professional endeavor. We have new concepts concerning

the proper steps to be taken in reaching our objectives. We have new materials to use in helping our students learn and new tests to measure their progress in this learning. We have new technological aids that enable us to do more things and to do them better than we could in the past, and for a greater number of students. We have new techniques of classroom procedure that can greatly increase the efficiency of both teacher and learner.

NEW OBJECTIVES

What are our new objectives? Those of us who were language teachers between the two World Wars well remember the professional consensus that agreed upon a single objective: Reading. We can also recall both our hopes and misgivings, during the late forties and early fifties, as the single objective became a triple objective: Language Competence, Cultural Insight, and Literary Acquaintance--with Language Competence referring not only to one skill but to four skills: Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing. In simplest terms, we may state that we have not set out to teach our students to do with the language they are learning--the target language--what is done with it by those who speak it natively. The moment we put our objectives in these terms, things are different, and very different. The role of English is severely diminished and greatly changed. Translation disappears almost completely. Analysis of structure is differently conceived and radically altered. And all this for the simple reason that when, say, a German speaks or reads or writes German, he doesn't use any English, he doesn't translate but stays within his language, and he doesn't analyze grammar as he goes along, he just uses it.

NEW CONCEPTS

What are new concepts? During the past decade a number of quite powerful concepts concerning language learning have been spelled out and widely discussed. One of these is the concept of language as communication. These two, language and communication, are not to be equated one to one. We can easily have communication without language--consider two partners dancing together. We can also have language without

communication--consider a cocktail party or a faculty tea. But having recognized the difference, we put them together in our concept of language as communication, meaning not only face-to-face communication between speakers but also writer-to-reader communication in written and printed forms, and artist-to-audience communication in the field of literature. Implied in this concept is the use of language as the native speaker uses it.

Another new concept is that of the levels of language learning. We needed this because of the many different starting points now in vogue. In this concept, a level is taken to be the block of learning that can be assimilated in a single year in the senior high school. Projected upward, a level may represent the work of a single semester in college; projected downward, it may well fill the space of two years or more. In view of circumstances as we find them, we can say that the first two levels comprise the Basic Course, the third and fourth lead to Language Competence, and the fifth and sixth to Literary Competence. This concept replaces our former subdivision into grades or years.

And, last but not least, we ourselves have a new importance in the scheme of things, an importance that brings with it both the pleasure of recognition and the burden of responsibility.

CULTURAL CONCEPT

There is a third concept that we call the Cultural Concept, a notion we have discussed and debated, quite earnestly, for at least a decade, without making very much progress. A prime stumbling block is the word Culture itself, which has so many different meanings for different people. In our perplexity we have sometimes had recourse to the word Civilization, but again, not very successfully, for culture and civilization are not more the same than are communication and language. For what it may be worth, I suggest that we use the terms formal culture and deep culture, meaning by formal culture the products of artistic endeavor, the achievement of intellectual and artistic genius, and all the various modes of significant thought and genteel living of which a country is fully aware and justly proud, and is quite ready to talk about, to display, and even to export. By deep culture, in contrast, we refer to the thoughts and actions, and beliefs and concerns and hopes and worries, the multitudinous and infinitely subtle gradation of interpersonal relationships as expressed in deeds and words, the day-by-day details of life as it is live--often

with little awareness--at home and at school, at work and at play, in church and in celebrations, in childhood and in manhood, in country and in city--in a word, what it is like to be an Italian or a Japanese, a German or a Peruvian. If it be asked in what way the cultural concept relates to language learning, the answer is very simple. The authentic meaning of language can only be the meaning it has for those who speak the language natively. Not to learn culture is not to learn meaning, and we should be left with sounds and forms and syntactical patterns that referred to our own culture, or to the wrong thing or to nothing at all.

There is a fourth concept--which I have called the Multi-Discipline Concept--that I am going to speak of in some detail a little later.

We have a new companion for grammar analysis--it is analogy. Analogy and analysis as factors in the acquisition of language have been reassessed. Instead of relying exclusively upon analysis, as we have been doing since the days of Charlemagne in the study of all foreign languages, we no longer invoke the aid of analogy--which I take the liberty of defining here as "hidden sameness." Since we learn our mother tongue quite by analogy and not at all by analysis, why not try to make analogy work for us in the learning of a second language? Learning by analogy is the kernel idea of structure drill, which we find so valuable in all our courses.

But is all this so very new after all? Much that we call new, both in idea and in practice, can, with little difficulty, be found in the immediate past or even in the more remote past. What is distinctly new is the broad general acceptance of ideas that formerly were rare, of practices that are now becoming common but formerly were unusual.

MEANING

A next question is, what do we find that is profound in language learning, an activity that has been compared to riding a bicycle? The comparison, I fear, is either facetious or quite unwarranted. Circus animals can learn to ride a bicycle, yet very few of them can produce a conditional sentence, something that any four-year-old human child can produce, and often does. Profundity in language learning is not far to seek. We have scarcely taken the wraps off language and looked to see what it really is before we find ourselves face to face with symbolism, one

of the most mysterious of all the activities of the human mind and spirit. And we find ourselves face to face with meaning, no doubt the most enigmatic puzzle in the human predicament.

It is neither our assignment nor our privilege now to explore these questions very deeply, but we may be entitled to pause for a moment to link this philosophical challenge with our daily classroom problems. Meaning has a number of different levels that all should clearly distinguish. A typical language act goes through phases that are both air-borne and internalized. The air-borne phase is marvelously complicated yet analyzable and understandable. The internalized phase is, for the most part, still the great unknown, as challenging a problem as human beings are ever likely to encounter. As a word lies on a page it has only the potential for meaning something. It is not until a living mind makes some use of the word that it takes on the additional significance of psychological meaning. Even more important to us is the distinction the philosophers make between meaning as it appears in a term and as it appears in a proposition. A single word has the ability to refer to one meaning area and to exclude others. When we put terms into propositions--that is, put words into utterances or sentences--their potential for meaning is greatly increased and often modified and changed. Now, we cannot communicate with each other by using isolated words; we must use utterances of sentences. This fact helps us understand how fruitless is the learning of isolated words, for unless we have the additional capacity for using them in utterances, words are literally no good to us at all.

Man symbolizes all day long, and often far into the night. Yet many of our acts are non-symbolic. To understand this difference we may compare taking a drink with reading a book. When you sit down to a glass of coca-cola, what have you before you? Well, glass, the drink itself, perhaps a straw, and some ice. You consume the drink, your thirst is quenched, and the act has no further significance than what it is. When you sit down to read a novel, what have you before you? From the point of view of physical reality, not very much--maybe half a pound of wood pulp, so small amount of printer's ink, and, if the book is bound, a little cloth and thread and a few dabs of glue. Yet out of this unlikely assortment of trivial matter you are able to create situations and people, observe problems and perceive character; your emotions are often so stirred that you laugh or cry or both, and you end by having glimpsed, from a fresh point of view,

another facet of human life. And all this is possible through the magic of symbolism. What symbolism is and what meaning is are questions that still await an answer, yet both lie at the very core of language.

Yet with all this profundity, language learning and language behavior are to be found everywhere. While doctor and saint are locked in argument about it, the language miracle is taking place in the mind and nerve and muscle tissue of the little child nearby.

OUR URGENT TASK

What is urgent about our task? We might begin by citing the national resources of linguistic potential we have that will be squandered unless we turn them to account. It is clear that as a country we are on the threshold of a tremendously broadened educational program, and our field is certain to continue to be a critical one, as it was recognized to be in 1958. College entrance is a matter of extreme importance to many students and their parents, and here too language competence will continue to play a significant role. I believe there is also an important role for language learning to play in programs for students whom we call "under-achievers" or slow learners. In the high schools we are often at a loss to know what to do with and for such students, and it may well be that language programs of an appropriate kind can become a welcome addition to a curriculum they can follow with success. In all these matters we are, to a considerable extent, under pressure. Yet we are surrounded by friends who wish us well and who understand that language competence is a slow and steady growth, and will therefore give us time to produce results. But someday, pretty soon, people are going to ask: Where are all these students who can speak these languages?

THE REALITY OF LANGUAGE

I come now to some thoughts that I am especially eager to share with this audience. They are peculiarly the thoughts of a language teacher, but as I said at the beginning, I take it that is what we are. When language is commented upon, it is often treated in a most objective and impersonal way, as a machine-like set of signs and signals that permit us to exchange

information and intent, analysis and interpretation. At other times, it is spoken of with stress upon its illustrative and intimate nature, for nothing more aptly characterizes a nation than the national tongue, nothing personalizes an individual more sharply and uniquely than the quality of the language he speaks. Or again, we speak of the evocative power of words, as they bring together what would otherwise remain unrelated, and lead our perception and imagination to discover what would, without their help, remain hidden. Since in any thorough estimate of language we are faced with a series of appearances that range from clockwork to poetry, we may look for intermediate steps or focal points at which language may be arrested and subjected to scrutiny by an attentive eye and an attentive ear. We find that its character varies surprisingly from one point to another, yet a description of language seems hardly justified unless these many manifestations are taken into account.

SYMBOL SYSTEM

Language is first of all a symbol system, a procedure in which what is perceived by the ear or the eye, though often of considerable interest, is in fact less important than what the verbal symbol, heard or written, stands for. We cannot fully understand language as a symbol system without reviewing symbol systems in general, and comparing language with other symbol systems which our minds habitually employ. Such an inquiry takes us into the field of philosophy, the first of half a dozen adjacent fields to which ours relates. The use of language by human beings is a matter of very long standing and, of course, it has a history. The origin of spoken language must go back well over a million years, for most of us would agree that man could hardly be called man until he had developed the ability to communicate by speech. The history of written language is much shorter, going back only five or six thousand years. There have been students of language during this time, and the field of philology is devoted to the whole history of language in its written forms. To understand what language is we must understand what it was. Whatever we may do in our language classes, both we and our students must eventually come to terms with a text, and in such matters, all the way from simple accuracy to stylistics, we need the traditions and the guidance of philology. Language can also become a vehicle for

great ideas and for fine art, and literature, along with music and painting, sculpture and the dance, represent the best that man has been able to achieve. In them his urge toward expression and the refinements of aesthetic preference play upon the raw materials of life that surround him and the emotions within himself. However, we may feel about literary history or literary criticism or literary appreciation, language is the stuff of which literature is made. We can never fully appreciate the latter unless we are thoroughly acquainted with the warp and woof and fabric of the former.

MENTAL PROCESS

Considered in another way, language is a mental process and a complex of skills. We are not born with language but we learn it, and memory, habit formation, learning ability, and motivation all play a part in the end result. Inquiry in these directions takes us to the field of scientific psychology, and the study of language as behavior as well as the measurement of success in language learning can confidently expect to be greatly clarified by appropriate questioning and research in this important discipline. We would like to know far more than we do about how two languages relate to each other when both are present in the same person, in what order and with what emphasis the four language skills may best be learned, and what are the subtle graduations whereby one skill, little by little, comes to supplant another. We would like to know better than we do how reference to the mother tongue may be a help in learning a second language, or, on the contrary, may be a hindrance. It is our task to articulate these questions with precision and then invite the cooperation of the scientists in psychological experimentation.

CODE

As we listen to a man speaking, we quickly perceive that he is using a given code, one of a great many that could be used. If we examine this code very carefully, just in itself, we discover that what might at first seem random and diffuse bursts and showers of sound are in fact highly integrated and systematized. Many remarkable secrets about this system have only recently been brought to light, and in ways reminiscent of Harvey's

explanation of the circulation of the blood we have come to have a far better understanding of something that has been an intimate part of our existence for a long time. The scientists who have set themselves the task of analyzing and describing language are called descriptive linguists or linguistic scientists, and this discipline has a storehouse of information to communicate to the person whose task it is to see that language is successfully learned. Perhaps the greatest contribution of the linguists or our work to date is the simple fact that language is something you say before it is something you see. This innocent-sounding statement, taken at face value, has produced all sorts of changes and improvements in what takes place in language classrooms.

When we seek to trace out what the various elements and combinations of the code in use stand for, that is, what language means, we go in the direction of still another discipline which we call cultural anthropology. This we must do because the sounds and forms and patterns of the code are fully significant only in terms of what they stand for in the minds of those who speak the language natively. It is not enough to use the forms of a new language merely to recode information about the culture in which we live. What we really wish to know is what the new code means to those whose language it is.

LANGUAGE AND HUMANITIES

To resume for a moment what we have just been saying, note that we have referred to six different disciplines; three of them we would call the humanities--philosophy, philology, and literature. Three others we would class as sciences--psychology, descriptive linguistics, cultural anthropology. There is a contrast in basic orientation between the first group and the second, which we as language teachers are well advised to be aware of. If we were to make a list of matters that were of unquestioned importance in the humanities, we would certainly find in it such items as authority, perfection, tradition, beauty, righteousness, justice, faith, compassion, make-believe, good taste, character, didactic, non-reality, danger, evil, and soul and love and spirit.

LANGUAGE AND SCIENCES

On the other hand, a comparable list for the sciences would include observation, classification, description, physical reality, existent phenomena, experimentation, total accountability, public proof, measurement, efficiency, and fact. Of course, these two basic attitudes are not altogether mutually exclusive, but the difference is clear. We might compare typical statements from the two areas. As a typical scientific statement we could cite this: "The intensity of light varies inversely with the square of the distance from the source." Under the heading of humanities we might say: "A soft answer turneth away wrath" or "A stitch in time saves nine." Now, a person who says such things is not speaking as a scientist. Who knows but what a stitch in time might save only eight? Or perhaps ten? Maybe the humanist should say: "A stitch in time saves plus or minus nine."

Why point out these obvious differences between the humanities and the sciences? I believe it is extremely important to do so because we who teach languages are neither in one camp or the other, but in the nature of things must relate to both of them. In the world of today, as I scarcely need to remind you, science is in the ascendancy. The findings of science have profoundly affected our work and the influence of technology upon pedagogy is apparent in our field as in any other, if not more so. We welcome the offerings of science for because of them we have been able to make our programs far more ambitious and effective. But there are some other voices, perhaps rather still and rather small, that people whose task it is to guide the learning of the young must listen to as well. There are some values that we find only in the fields of non-science, and these you and I cannot afford to neglect.

LANGUE ET PAROLE

One of the earliest linguists, Ferdinand de Saussure, saw language as a stream flowing in a dual channel, one of code and the other of meaning, the two being very different but interrelated at every point. If we may change the image for a moment and think of code as a fabric, we can recognize in it no less than four strands. The four-fold interweaving of sound, order, form, and choice is a prime characteristic of human speech. You can see

how ill founded is the notion that the communication practices of bees or birds or monkeys or even dolphins should be honored with the name of language. You see also how varied and complex are the skills that we must develop in our students. Analyzing language in another way, we see it divided into three separate bands, one of talk, one of gesture, and one of writing. Gesture is interesting, but for our purposes relatively unimportant. Writing, however, is quite the other way.

LANGUAGE IS SPEECH

Now, whether we are aware of it or not, or are willing to admit it, all writing goes back to talk. And it is about this central band of talk--we now use the term *audiolingual*--that I wish to speak for a few moments.

I think talk needs to be defended against some of the strictures that are frequently flung in its direction. We hear it said that talk is cheap, that speech is silver while silence is golden, that one picture is worth a thousand words; and I have heard it said that it's a terrible death to be talked to death. But are these criticisms not leveled at the quality and the quantity of talk rather than at talk itself? We must distinguish between a given commodity and its overuse or misuse. Talk can indeed be gross and vulgar, it can indeed be banal and fatiguing, but it also has the remarkable capacity for sometimes attaining to the sublime. Language, like love, has many faces. It wears different guises and plays numerous roles in the daily drama of human life. Language in the form of talk is a major tie between the infant and the world around him, between the adult and his niche in the social order. It is a principal commodity of business, a weapon for military action, and the instrument of law. It is the common currency of personal interchange, both trivial and solemn; it is a pliant medium for lofty thought and exquisite art. Its presence marks the vital force that animates our companions and our friends; its absences does quite the opposite in voices that are forever stilled.

AUDIOLINGUAL

Those who find *audiolingual* somehow lacking in seriousness and dignity and effectiveness should remember that we do not

possess a single word written by Confucius or Buddha or Socrates or Christ. All these molders of human thought and action deliberately chose to make their impact upon men by means of the spoken word rather than by writing. Never think that audiolingual is separable from literature. It ranges from high-frequency small talk (often a critical ingredient in the best literature) through public address from platform and pulpit, through the art form of the theatre, to the best of lyric poetry, which must be heard to be fully savored. In time it goes back to the earliest edantic hymns, which were composed and transmitted orally long before they were put down in writing. One word of caution about "audiolingual": It cannot be called a method. I have never put those two words together and I trust that you will not do so either. We can speak of audiolingual skills, of audiolingual techniques, of audiolingual learning, of audiolingual materials, and of audiolingual approach. But if "audiolingual" were a method it would lead to illiteracy, which, from our point of view, is absurd.

LANGUAGE AND ESTHETICS

There is still another element by no means always present in language but of great importance when found, and highly esteemed in the academic world. This is the aesthetic element, a refining of both sound and meaning to the point of their being no longer merely the tools of communication but instruments of artistic expression as well. Our assignment is formal education in the academic world. Our value system has to be colored by academic values, or we have no right to accept public money or expect public recognition for our endeavors. The aesthetic content of at least a part of what we present to our students and the dimension of personal refinement that language learning can bring to them must never be overlooked. The adolescent soul has a capacity for high purpose, and adventure, and poetry, to which we must make appeal, or we cheat both our students and ourselves.

Language is not a rock that can crush a toe; a cutting remark does not leave your face or fingers bleeding. Yet language is more substantial than a concept or a dream, for it can be perceived by the senses and can be recorded, studied and measured. In fact, language stands at the threshold of the real and the non-real. As such it greatly perplexes the

philosophers, who are ill at ease with what cannot be categorized as one or the other. Language learning, conceived in terms of the objectives and the concepts I have described to you, has no need of being a dependent of a single field in the humanities, such as literature, nor of a single field in the sciences, such as descriptive linguistics. On the contrary, our need is to establish ourselves as a discipline in our own right, and to cooperate amicably and productively with that half-dozen disciplines that border so closely upon our own.

MISCONCEPTIONS

One of our problems is a lively clutch of popular misconceptions about what language is, misconceptions held almost universally by laymen and sometimes by language teachers themselves. I list four of these popular misconceptions as follows:

- I A language is its vocabulary;
- II Language is what is written in books;
- III The unit of language communication is the word;
- IV Understanding a foreign language means that you can immediately restate it in your mother tongue.

We could easily spend all our time this evening demonstrating how wrong these misconceptions are. But all we can do is to refer to them in passing. Another problem is to disentangle the role of sound and of light in language learning and language behavior--and thereby hangs the tale of audiovisual, language laboratory, and television. But to this also we can only refer. A third problem has to do with what we call the skills in language behavior. We customarily enumerate them as four, but here again, on closer inspection, we discover unexpected complexities. How different, how separable, and how marvelously intermixed the language skills are is underlined by the following facts that come to us from studies of the brain. When the brain is injured, either by accident or disease, there may be a loss of grammatical form without any loss or confusion of words, yet, contrariwise, there may be loss or confusion of words without loss of sentence structure. There may be inability to understand spoken language though hearing is intact, but not inability to read. But, the other way around, there may be ability to understand spoken language

though the ability to read is lost. Some brain injuries leave the victim able to repeat words spoken for him but not to speak on his own; in other cases he cannot repeat words he has just heard, yet is able to use the same words in spontaneous speech. Since these are precisely the skills we work so diligently to develop, the facts just stated point up the great need for cooperative research by language teachers and scientists.

STRUCTURES AND SENTENCES

As of now we can say that significant progress is being made in teaching our students to talk. After this comes the problem of getting them to write. In our recent work on the preparation of languages tests, the MLA Cooperative FL Tests, we found that tests of writing could be separated into three areas which, we called "sub-sentence," and "paragraph" and we were able to make many satisfactory tests using these subdivisions.

As teachers I think we do not ordinarily pay sufficient attention to the sentence as such. First we have our students read, then learn vocabulary words and idiomatic expressions--in context to be sure--then we ask them questions to which they give answers orally and in writing, then we go directly to the writing of a composition before we have provided sufficient modeling and coaching in the construction of single sentences. The norm of expression in spoken speech is without doubt the utterance which may or may not be a complete sentence, depending on circumstances. The norm of written speech, however, is unquestionably the sentence. Compositions are made of paragraphs and paragraphs are made of sentences, and it is the sentence as the lowest common denominator of written language that often has not received the full attention that it merits. A sentence is much more than a sequence of words and expressions. Indeed it is much more than the answer to a question, for an answer often depends for a good part of its form or meaning upon the question it drew forth. It is easy for us to forget that in spoken language what is said often has no need to be a complete sentence and by insisting that our students reply to questions in complete sentences we may unwittingly give them a distorted notion of what a sentence is and how it is used.

This brings to my mind a statement of Henry David Thoreau who said that a sentence should lie like a boulder on the page. It brings to mind also a statement by William Jovavovich in a

recent book entitled Now, Barrabas in which he says: "The most important single thing in publishing is the English sentence, and the editor who cannot contemplate it again and again with a sense of wonder has not yet gained respect for the complexity of learning. One likes to recall that Gibbon said that once he got right the first sentence of The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire the rest followed." These thoughts bring to mind also Noam Chomsky's Syntactic Structures in which the author sets forth his ideas on transformation grammar, the latest thing in structural linguistics and, it turns out, all about sentences

There are many things which we can have our students do with a sentence in the foreign language without relating it in any way to English. Not only can we have him repeat it aloud and write it from dictation, we can also have him copy it from the book, with certain changes. We can give him the first half of it and have him complete it. We can give him the bare bones of a sentence, just a string of lexical items, and have him reconstruct the original in its full and normal form. We can have him write a parallel sentence that has a different meaning content but the same structure. These are all exercises which the student finds interesting and rewarding. Once he begins to have a sense of what a sentence can be and do, he can go to the making of his own, to note a description, to recount the crucial happening in an event, to state a position taken, to formulate a critical observation and the reason for it, to give precise expression to an idea or concept. Then he can proceed to the writing of paragraphs and compositions.

To all who are concerned about teaching writing to students in our language courses I recommend a book written a good many years ago, in 1915 to be exact, and published by the Harvard University Press. The author was Rollo Brown and the title: How the French Boy Learns to Write. When our students appear to suffer from such juvenile maladies as spots before the vocabulary, grammatical rickets, and pernicious anglicisms, the fault may well be we have not provided for them adequate models and have not coached them rightly in the use of these models. A reading of Brown's How the French Boy Learns to Write makes it quite clear that one way to solve the writing problem is to provide excellent models, to analyze these models thoroughly, and to conduct extensive spoken explorations--we would know say audiolingual exploration--of a subject and its development before inviting the student to put pen to paper.

LEARNING

Another fact, though not exactly a problem, is that although as a profession we are beginning to have a consensus about aims and means, we do not at all have unanimity. I am sure I am revealing no secret when I tell you that not everyone in our field is convinced that the approach to language learning that I have been describing is the right one. There is a loyal opposition, which has been frankly critical, and this is as it should be. Of late some scientific overtones have been discernible in such criticisms, and I believe these merit a rebuttal. Learning theory is an extremely active field of psychology, and many points of view should be considered. There is a monthly magazine called the Scientific American published for people like you and me, laymen who wish to keep abreast of what is happening on the frontiers of science. In the issue of January this year there is an article by M.E. Bitterman, a psychologist at Bryn Mawr College, bearing the title "The Evolution of Intelligence." It talks about measuring the intelligence of a number of different living creatures, ranging from fish to monkeys, and ends by offering the following generalizations: "As we ascend the evolutionary scale, we do not find a pattern of intellectual continuity but one of discontinuity As Charles Darwin developed his theory of evolution he denied not only the physical uniqueness of man but, also, the intellectual uniqueness. It was Edward L. Thorndyke who set forth the theory that differences from species to species are only differences of degree and that the evolution of intelligence involves only the improvement of old processes and in the development of more neural elements. Our studies of habit reversal and probability learning in the lower animals suggest that the brain structures evolved by higher animals do not serve merely to replicate old functions and modes of intellectual adjustment but to mediate new ones (a contradiction of the Thorndyke hypothesis.)" To me this is another way of saying that human intelligence, at least in some respects, differs in kind from that of any other living creature. I labor this point because the psychologists who seem most eager to help us with our problems are precisely those who, I think mistakenly, equate children to pigeons, language to nonsense, and the pairing of lexical equivalents in two languages to verbal interchange in a given tongue. Our task has to do not with the learning of the mother tongue but, in the words of Comenius, with another language that

can take its place. And--even more special still--with the learning of this additional language in the somewhat artificial surroundings of formal education. We, and all those who would help us, should keep constantly in mind the unique character of what it is we are called upon to do. What may happen at mother's knee, what may happen in foreign travel, what may happen in a psychological laboratory, what may happen in business or the diplomatic corps or in military service, for all its interest and importance, is never the same as what we must cause to happen as we teach our students in classrooms of schools and colleges.

NEW OPPORTUNITIES

As for the opportunities that lie before us, I see them as essentially of two kinds; one to be found in the nature of the language program in the classroom itself and the other in cooperation and collaboration between the different echelons of the academic hierarchy. Not only how possible but how profitable such cooperation and collaboration can be has already been demonstrated on dozens and dozens of college and university campuses in the Language Institutes that have been conducted under NDEA, by college and school personnel, for teachers in elementary and secondary schools. There is every reason to hope and expect that there will continue to be beginning classes in a second language in both elementary and secondary schools.

There is also every reason to hope and expect that all students who come to college will be in possession of a recognized competence in one foreign language, enabling them to continue with cultural and literary studies in that language or to begin another language, or to do both. This implies that there will be available a sequence of not less than four senior high school years of language study or their equivalent. There is really only one direction for the very important FLES Movement to take, and that is to teach the first part of a basic course that can be complemented and completed in the junior high school. This implies, to be sure, a workable degree of professional agreement on objectives, procedures, materials, and tests.

If there were time, I would talk with you at length about what I like to call "classroom dynamics." We sometimes hear it said that audiolingual classes are boring. May I outline some suggestions for exorcising the classroom of this skulking ghost,

and do so in a negative way? Here is a list of 25 Don'ts for the language teacher, presented not as "Confucius say" or "Thus Spake Zarathustra" but rather as suggestions of one language teacher talking with others.

25 DON'TS

1. Don't attempt to teach all you know.
2. Don't let students wonder why you are teaching a certain way-tell them.
3. Don't use the mother tongue to communicate with students during the FL class.
4. Don't permit the students to make comments and ask questions in English during the FL class.
5. Don't require the students to invent new language structures-model what is wanted.
6. Don't use English to explain structure during the FL class.
7. Don't refer all FL learning to a printed text.
8. Don't teach numbers and songs as language-they belong to other symbol systems. Teach them as math and music.
9. Don't teach single vocabulary words in lists or with pictures-teach vocabulary in context.
10. Don't use the FL to refer only to what is in sight. For the most part, language refers to what cannot be seen at all.
11. Don't spend long stretches of class time doing the same thing-vary the program. (At least 7 variations are possible in any class.)
12. Don't let students think that words mean other words. Most of the time, words mean non-words.
13. Don't encourage the interference of English by constant reference to it.
14. Don't let concern for vocabulary hinder the learning of structure.
15. Don't neglect intonation patterns when teaching pronunciation.
16. Don't ask students to translate from the target language into English.
17. Don't ask students to repeat utterances that to them are devoid of meaning.
18. Don't judge accuracy of comprehension by the ability to restate in another language.
19. Don't neglect any one of the four skills.

20. Don't teach paradigms and contrastive pairs as control of structure.
21. Don't teach too much at once. Learning takes time and proceeds best in minimal steps.
22. Don't neglect the teaching of culture, both formal and deep.
23. Don't deprive the learner of at least a brief acquaintance with language of literary quality.
24. Don't attempt the appreciation of literature before the learner has finished the basic course.
25. Don't neglect to display language in actual use.

I believe that the seven variations referred to in number eleven comprise the best of all means for outwitting boredom.

To many to whom our kind of language teaching is new, one of the most appealing notions is that of the classroom as a cultural island, one in which the sounds, the structures and the idioms of the language, as well as the meaning of the code, are as authentic to the target culture as they can be. They are, of course, many non-linguistic elements of the target culture that can find their way into the classroom, all the way from numbers and songs to pictures and coins and articles of dress. But the central figure in the cultural island is the language teacher himself or herself, using the language with the students. The list of ingredients that go to make up a good teacher includes, along with a full measure of the milk of human kindness, a pinch of the missionary and a dash of the ham actor. The cultural island lends itself flexibly to the exercise of these desirable qualities.

POSITIVE EVALUATION

Now, in conclusion, as we continue our way towards our new objectives, there are two questions that may be in our minds and that merit an answer, even though brief. One is: Have our efforts in the past been wholly beside the point and without value? and the other: Can we really make native speakers of the students in our schools and colleges? It should not be thought that our efforts in the past were without worth; quite the contrary. It is a noble thing to study the manner in which people who speak a foreign language express themselves and to try to appreciate, however imperfectly, the unique character of their thoughts and ways and aspirations. In the light of knowledge and experience we now have, it seems quite certain that we have

given up none of the good features of our traditional language programs, but instead have preserved them and added measurably to them, certainly to the far greater satisfaction of our students.

As for making native speakers of our students, let us recognize that to use a language as it is used by a native speaker is one thing and that to become a native speaker is quite another. High hopes must be tempered with realism. When we stop to think of it, we must admit that our native language is very much a part of ourself, our personality, our inmost thought. Our mother tongue fits us like our skin, or our right hand. At best a second language learned in formal education can fit us only like a new suit of clothes. But the cloth can be of good quality, it can be tailored to fit us well, we can wear it gracefully and with general approval, and we can keep it pressed and in good condition. The second language learner thus becomes linguistically presentable and respectable. Yet the model that we imitate and strive to approach should none-the-less be language as used by the native speaker. I quote you Robert Browning: "A man's reach should exceed his grasp, or what's a Heaven for?"

1970-1974

A WORLD WITHOUT WALLS

(Reprinted from Dimension: 1971)

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For all the generations of men prior to World War II, physical and figurative walls were erected for shelter, for protection, and for privacy as a matter of course, as a natural, rational development in the life of a man or in the life of a society. Until a generation or so ago, every man could identify positively with Virgil's: "How happy those whose walls already rise!" But, "within the memory of man," as the ancient Roman was wont to say, our attitudes toward walls have changed: today we are much more of Robert Frost's persuasion that "Something there is that doesn't love a wall." "Within the memory of man" the Berlin Wall--the ultimate wall--was built. And now, like the Frost of an earlier day, we are inclined to say:

Before I built a wall I'd ask to know
What I was walling in and walling out,
And to whom I was like to give offense.¹

The Berlin Wall made the word "wall" an obscenity. It is entirely possible that the concept of "a world without walls" was born in that moment in which the Berlin Wall burst upon our collective consciousness as a physical and figurative reality.

The "world" of the people in this room is the world of foreign-language education. Whom have the walls of our world walled in? Walled out? To whom have the walls of our world been "like to give offence"? Are the walls of our world secure and well established, or have they already been breached? Are some of these walls already crumbling? Are there some we should destroy ourselves in righteous indignation? Are there any "Berlin Walls" in our world? What is the state of our world's walls?

In his 1968 address as Executive Secretary of ACTFL, F. André Paquette held out a "measure of hope" for our profession, concluding with:

One of the men assassinated in the U.S. in 1968 used to say, "I have a dream" The other paraphrased George Bernard Shaw and said, "Some men see things as they are and ask, 'Why?' I dream things that have never been and ask 'Why not?' Perhaps it is time for us foreign language teachers, us humanists, to dream the impossible dream" ²

I have a dream" "Some men see things as they are and ask 'Why?' I dream things that have never been and ask, 'Why not?' Is a world without walls just a dream, just a 'catchy' theme for a conference?

L.P. Hartley is quoted in a new movie *The Go-Between*: "The past is a foreign country: they do things differently there." That description of the past, a time concerned with wall building, is essentially the same one Margaret Mead gives us in her discussions of postfigurative, cofigurative, and prefigurative cultures. She writes, in Culture and Commitment, A Study of the Generation Gap:

The distinctions I am making among three different kinds of culture--postfigurative, in which children learn primarily from their forebears, cofigurative, in which both children and adults learn from their peers, and prefigurative, in which adults also learn from their children--are a reflection of the period in which we live. Primitive societies and small religious and ideological enclaves are primarily postfigurative, deriving authority from the past. Great civilizations, which necessarily have developed techniques for incorporating change, characteristically make use of some form of cofigurative learning from peers, from playmates, fellow students, and fellow apprentices. We are now entering a period, new in history, in which the young are taking on new authority in their prefigurative apprehension of the still unknown future. ³

What Toffler calls the "future tense" of education, Mead says will require a new kind of teacher.

We must create new models for adults who can teach their children not what to learn but how to learn and not

what they should be committed to but the value of commitment.⁴

For the great mass of us, a foreign-language world without walls is going to have to be a learned activity.

And so to the first wall to come down has to be our block against further learning: we shall have to cease rearranging endlessly that which we have already learned and devote time to becoming co-learners. There is no room in the world which is becoming for "terminal" degrees. We tell our students things like:

So, today's college man must, first, recognize that his education is perishable and will require continuing study, formal or informal. Second, he must think out what he must do in each intervening year after graduation to assure that he will remain an educated person 20 years from graduation--in 1991.⁵

If the student's education is perishable today, what can we say of his teacher's? Don't the teachers of today have to begin demonstrating their abilities to learn new things, to relearn some old ones, and to unlearn some inappropriate ones? A prefigurative motto of sorts was voiced by Prime Minister Sata: "I think of today not as the day after yesterday, but as the day before tomorrow."⁶ Today IS the day before tomorrow; yesterday is a part of the past where "they do things differently."

Our prefigurative young have already taught us several lessons: the dissatisfaction which swelled against this country's undeclared war in Vietnam came from youthful "teachers"; the concern about the environment and pollution also started with them. And so the wall against further learning has been breached; we are not discussing tearing down a solid wall but rather letting one crumble.

But as this wall crumbles, we shall have to accept the fact that our unidirectional instructional program will also end. The halcyon days of our professional "pecking order" are nearly over. There are lessons a college professor can learn from a secondary--or an elementary-school teacher. And most of these "lessons" have to do with some new kinds of students who are presenting themselves for college educations in the seventies. As a fine young guidance counselor told me in Nashville, Tennessee last year: "In the old days everyone took college preparatory courses in the hope that he would be enabled to go to college. Today nobody takes college prep but everybody goes."

Suburbia alone cannot guide our country and solve its dilemmas, however fearfully we approach the teaching of minority groups of every description. Another wall which is disintegrating is that one determining what an education is and for whom it is intended. As high-school editor Bernice Sakuma wrote under the caption TRADITION BOMBS, noting that only 73 couples had attended the Junior-Senior Prom:

Have you ever wondered whatever happened to the Carnival, Senior Mother-Daughter Tea . . . the Faculty Honors Banquet, the student body officers nominating convention, and the annual dramatic presentations? . . . Student disinterest in organized school activities might be labeled with the general, overused "apathy." But such a categorization is unwarranted . . . Even though Cubberly (High School) has seen the phasing out of certain traditional events, perhaps this simply reflects constructive student interest in other activities . . . a trend away from social events toward increasing student awareness of their lives in relation to the world they will be graduating into?⁷

The student of the seventies, be he black or white or brown, be he from suburbia or inner-city or rural areas, be he male or female, is fighting valiantly to persuade the professional educator that education belongs to HIM, not any teacher, and that the school or college is responsible for a very small part of the total education he receives. To the student of the seventies the unexamined curriculum is a wall which is "like to give offence" to everyone.

The student's absorption with the world he lives in and "will be graduating into" is clearly illustrated in this example from Charles M. Schultz's *Peanuts*; Lucy is the teacher and Linus the student. It is a prefigurative lesson of the highest order.

Lucy: "When she saw the little house in the woods, she wondered who lived there so she knocked at the door. No one answered so she knocked again." What do you think will happen?

Linus: I can't imagine.

Lucy: "... Still no one answered, so Goldilocks opened the door and walked in. There before her, in the little room, she saw a table set for three . . .

There was a great bowl of porridge, a middle-sized bowl of porridge, and a little, wee bowl of porridge. She tested the great big bowl of porridge 'Oh, this is too hot,' she said. Then she tasted the middle-sized bowl of porridge. 'Oh, this is too cold.' Then she tasted the little, wee bowl. 'Oh, this is just right,' she said, and she ate it all up."

Linus: I have a question!

Lucy: About what?

Linus: Well, it's in regard to cooling It would seem to me that if the middle-sized bowl was cold, the little, wee bowl would be cold, too, rather than 'just right,' and . . .

P O W !

I never even brought up the far more obvious point of illegal entry!"

The wall between the school and the outside world is under siege. When students bring the outside world into our classrooms, we sometimes demonstrate reluctance to acknowledge that world, we sometimes show hostility toward this intrusion of that world into our own more comfortable one; most often we have revealed ourselves unable to cope with the "real" world of the student. In the past we walled out the students who had a world different from that of the teacher; contemporary social pressures and financial constraints, however, have compelled the foreign-language world to encompass not only the cultures of the target countries but the cultures of the target students. HOW MUCH EASIER IT HAS BEEN TO LOOK AT THE BRIDGES OF SPAIN OR GERMANY THAN TO BUILD BRIDGES TO STUDENTS WHOSE VALUES DIFFER SO RADICALLY FROM OUR OWN!

Sidney P. Marland, the nineteenth U.S. Commissioner of Education, has said:

We must invent new ways of accounting for our effectiveness. And if we cannot account for our effectiveness we should get out of the way. This applies particularly to school leaders at all levels. We are engaged in a totally new perception of education in our cities. Whereas a few years ago the schools were charged with providing equal educational opportunity,

they are now charged with providing equal education. This is quite different. The bass was in the other court when given the opportunity, the student succeeded or failed, and good riddance to the dropout. The sudden new demand for equal education as distinct from equal opportunity has quietly sprung, full blown, as a new, raw, and untested philosophy. The child no longer fails if his equal opportunity goes unfulfilled. The school, we are told, has failed, the teacher has failed, the superintendent has failed, the board of education has failed. This new overriding expectation cannot be turned back. Nor do I believe we as a profession would want it turned back.⁹

Equal education is "wall-less" education. The question we as professional educators have to answer is if we are equal to the demands of equal education. And do not for one moment brand this demand for equal education a racial issue. There are more students who have been failed by their teachers, their superintendents and boards of education--of my race--than any of the minorities.

Is equal education the same kind of dream as a world without walls? Are both of these ideas merely stimuli to the question, "Why?" It appears not. There are some dreamers in our foreign-language world who have dared to "dream things that have never been" who have dared to ask, "Why not?" Rudolph Masciantonio and Eleanor Sandstrom in Philadelphia are such dreamers. They have prepared a Latin FLES offering which uses the target language as a vehicle to improve the verbal skills of linguistically disadvantaged children. The creators of Romani Viventes et Dicentes are dreamers, but they are also trying to validate their dream with hard data.

Shirley Krogmeier of Marshall-University High School in Minneapolis another dreamer who asked, "Why not?" Miss Krogmeier used German as a means of working upon the changing of social behavior. Many of the students have now made German an end in their educations, just as many students in Philadelphia have now made Latin an end in theirs, but these are concomitants--not objectives. Neither the Minneapolis nor the Philadelphia offering would have been possible if the authors of the plans had been willing to go beyond the walls--the limits--of the standard sequence or the college requirement. Professor Carl Ziegler of my own institution has also broken through the

walls of our foreign-language world to teach German to "Discovery 71" students. Not only are these people unlikely foreign-language students, they are students of a kind rarely found on the college campus.

The "impossible dream" is probably Parkway School in Philadelphia. Parkway School is a deliberately designed "school without walls." In his article about Parkway, Henry Resnik says that "American society may not be ready for the kind of people that Parkway students are preparing to become" in exotic courses like Zen Watercolors, Candlemaking, and Leatherwork, conventional offerings like General Science, Basic English, and Typing, or the eleven languages which are taught. Reznik says:

A student's typical day might include a course in journalism at the Philadelphia Bulletin taught by the newspaper's staff, a lecture in physical science at the Franklin Institute, lunch in a nearby coffee shop, "tutorial" in the art museum (these groups of eighteen or so, which meet four times a week, are the base, something like a family, in which students receive counseling, instruction in basic skills, and evaluation), and a couple of hours' work in a downtown auto shop or a furniture-maker's studio in the little Bohemia of Sansom Street. Parkway students can conceivably spend the morning in an office building a few blocks from the Delaware River, Philadelphia's eastern boundary, and the afternoon at the University of Pennsylvania, forty blocks westward. Obviously, the Parkway Program involves a good deal of walking, but students who need to travel more than ten blocks receive free tokens for buses and subways.¹⁰

The "outside world" is the "inside world" in the Parkway Program. And the Parkway concept is very difficult to accept, especially among those teachers who still issue hall passes to the restroom. But the Parkway approach is one way of preparing the student for the world into which he will be graduating. If we will not let the world in, we are going to have to let the student out.

The walls of our foreign-language world are coming down--the walls of "elitist" student selection, the walls of the college requirement, the walls of the so-called "standard sequence." Whether it will be the student demands for relevance or the administrator demands for financial responsibility which bring them down, no matter. We have a choice of dismantling the

walls which survive or of standing with out backs to them as others tear them down. And in a foreign language world with few or no walls, we had better become TEACHERS first, FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHERS second, and GERMAN, FRENCH, SPANISH, ITALIAN, RUSSIAN, OR LATIN TEACHERS third. In an era destroying the compartmentalization of education and demanding interdisciplinary approaches, we are faced with the need to learn to talk with each other while we are learning to talk with our colleagues in other subject-matter areas. The first wall we CAN and MUST pull down--on occasions like this one--is the Babel we have developed through our monolingual professional language groups.

No one is seriously proposing that you work for a Parkway--an actual "school without walls"--but you can work for a school with multiple openings in the walls. You can exchange classes with other foreign-language colleagues to "share the wealth," work on mini-units with other subject-matter specialists, and you can become interested in that part of the student body--the majority--so avidly that you cultivate them and design your course offerings--State One courses as described by Wilga Rivers which are not "Pre-anything"; interdisciplinary approaches like those in Commack, New York and Gary Indiana; foreign-language exploratory offerings like FLEX in Topeka, Kansas or the total exploration offered in Apollo Junior High School in Antioch, Tennessee; or even standard sequences which stress the articulation of first and second year above all else--to "recruit" these students into our world.

In order to survive in the "real" world without walls, we shall have to dream. It will not be enough to say, "I have a dream . . ." however, nor will it suffice to say, "Some men see thins as they are and ask, 'Why?' I dream things that have never been and ask, 'Why not?' We shall have to become T. E. Lawrence's "dreamers of the day" who are "dangerous men, for they may act their dream with open eyes, to make the dream possible." How do you make a dream possible? John Holt, in What Do I Do Monday? says: "The way to begin is--to begin."¹¹

Whatever YOUR dream, and I hope that it is a world without walls for your sake and for the sake of all the upcoming prefigurative young, the way to make a dream possible is to begin, to act your dream with open eyes to make the dream possible TODAY which IS the day before the future. Let it not be said of us, as Christopher Morley put it:

There was so much handwriting on the wall
That even the wall fell down.

NOTES

The quotations in the presentation without citations were taken from Bartlett's.

1. Robert Frost. "Mending Wall." North Of Boston. The Poems of Robert Frost. (New York: The Modern Library, 1946), page 36.

2. F. André Paquette. "A Measure of Hope." Foreign Language Annals, Volume Two, Number Four (May 1969), page 435.

3. Margaret Mead. Culture and Commitment, A Study of the Generation Gap. (Garden City, New York: Natural History Press/Doubleday & Company, Incorporated, 1970), page 1.

4. *Ibid*, page 92.

5. Terrell H. Bell. "Year 1991." American Education, Volume 7, Number 1 (January-February 1971), page 25.

6. Prime Minister Sato. Quoted by Lady Bird Johnson. A White House Diary. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970), page 218.

7. Bernice Sakuma. Quoted by Sylvia Berry Williams. Hassling. (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1970), page 269.

8. Charles M. Schultz. Peanuts Treasury. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969), unnumbered pages.

9. "Quoting Marland." Convictions and observations about education excerpted from the speeches and writings of Sidney P. Marland, the 19th Commissioner of Education. American Education, Volume 7, Number 1 (January-February 1971), page 4.

10. Henry Resnik. "Parkway: A School Without Walls." In High School, edited by Ronald Gross and Paul Osterman. (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1971), page 250.

11. John Hold. What Do I Do Monday? (New York: E.P. Dutton & Company, Incorporated, 1970), page 303.

SCOLT:
YEARS OF PROGRESS
1975-1989

SCOLT: YEARS OF PROGRESS 1975-1989

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From its founding, the Southern Conference has existed with the principal mission of producing for language teachers an annual meeting or conference. This meeting has been devoted to language teaching and language learning. It is the big event of the corporation, the *raison d'être* which attracts attendance as does a championship game. Without a large membership roll or endowment, the corporation has depended for survival on the success of this annual meeting. A lack of attendance has created financial problems.

Many components make up the production of this big event. The site has to be chosen; the hotel arrangements have to be negotiated; the teachers have to be lured by promise of excitement, innovation and new ideas applicable to their teaching situations.

Through 1975, the annual meeting site was determined by a conference policy which stated that the site had to alternate between Atlanta and some other city in the southern region. In 1976, the policy was changed for economic reasons as well as the need to carry the meeting areas in the southern region. During recent years, more cities have constructed convention facilities adequate for a SCOLT annual meeting. Moreover, these thriving new areas have proven to be good drawing cards to SCOLT participants many of whom have brought their families and distinguished guests with them. New Orleans, with its history of elite tourism, has always been a good site; Charleston, discovered by the planners in recent years, has become a viable alternative to the Crescent City. Central Florida, notably the vast Orlando area, has been a rewarding meeting place because of the numerous attractions and climate, and the significant support received from the teachers of the State of Florida. Since 1977,

therefore, the Conference has carried its program to teachers in all sections of the southern area: from Richmond to New Orleans, from Orlando to Little Rock, from Charleston to San Antonio.

The task of attracting teachers and other interested persons to the annual meeting has been of prime importance. "What are they doing at SCOLT this year?", "Who are the key speakers?", "What is the theme of the conference?". The answers to these questions often determine whether a language teacher attends an annual conference. The themes of the SCOLT annual meetings, therefore, have reflected the emphases and interests in foreign language learning as they have changed during the past twenty-five years. SCOLT was on the front line as the pendulum swung from audio-lingualism to proficiency with intermediate stops between. Serious consideration has always been given to the theme since, at times, particular interest or lack thereof in a region had to be addressed. Viewing the themes of past conferences reminds one of the proverb: plus ça change, plus c'est la même chose.

1975	Lifelong Language Learning
1976	Language: Our Richest Heritage
1977	The New South: An Expanding Center of Language Study
1978	Ahead to What? Second Language is <u>Still</u> Basic
1979	ACTFL/SCOLT: Unity in Diversity
1980	Progress: Promise
1981	Foreign Language Teaching: Building On Our Successes
1982	Foreign Language Teaching: Is The Present Perfect?
1983	Shrinking World/Expanding Horizons
1984	Expanding Horizons: Business and Industry
1985	Perspectives on Proficiency
1986	Planning for Proficiency
1987	New Challenges and Opportunities
1988	Language in Action: Theory and Practice
1989	Languages: Perspectives & Horizons

The quality of the conference has always been good, and SCOLT has enjoyed a reputation for presenting a beneficial conference.

For years, the program was the domain of the vice chairperson and the chairperson. The latter invited principal speakers who worked on behalf of the conference. Following the restructuring of the board of directors, a member of the board or a special consultant has been responsible for the planning and execution of the program. This adjustment made consequently good programs into better ones.

The format of the conference has been fairly constant. The program has opened on Thursday afternoon and closed on Saturday afternoon. However, in Atlanta in 1974, and in Richmond in 1982, the sessions were concentrated on Friday and Saturday. At one time, a special fee was charged for Saturday attendance only. A significant, but not necessarily an annual, feature has been the pre-conference workshop. In 1978, in conjunction with ACTFL, Lorraine Strasheim presented a workshop in San Antonio; in 1980 a standing-room-only audience attended a dinner workshop in Charleston to hear and see John Rassias; in 1981, Woody Woodford presented a workshop at the joint SCOLT-FLAG meeting in Atlanta; Vicki Galloway was the guest for the workshop in Atlanta in 1985; Robert DiDonato presented in 1986 in Orlando, and Constance Knop, in Charleston in 1988.

Rising costs forced the elimination of the conference banquet during the seventies. Meal functions have been handled since that time by the local organizations although the Rassias workshop was a dinner meeting, and, the annual meeting of the Advisory Board is a breakfast. In 1988, the local committee in Charleston sponsored a boat ride complete with dinner as an extra-conference activity.

Over the years, SCOLT has developed a set of criteria which a hotel property must be able to meet in order to host an annual meeting of the conference. Meeting these qualifications in recent years has been less taxing than in the earlier years of the conference. Not only must sleeping rooms and eating facilities be available, but there must be space for numerous exhibits. SCOLT has reached a high of forty exhibit booths; hence, considerable space has had to be set aside for three days for these pertinent expositions of books and hardware. In addition, SCOLT has needed as many as twelve breakout rooms in order to stage an annual meeting. Reaching these criteria, while at the same time keeping both the cost of accommodations and registration within reach of the teachers who attended without support of their institutions, became a serious game for the

convention planners to play; most often, SCOLT has been a winner. In this vein, SCOLT has been quartered in old, restored monuments, in spatial resorts, in modern state-of-the-art complexes, in other structures which no longer exist, in locations which ranged from downtown main streets to isolated suburban areas. Rates have ranged from \$20.00 in the mid-1970's to nearly \$60.00 in the fading days of the 1980's. As an example, the pre-registration fee for the 1975 conference in New Orleans was \$7.00, including a copy of the Proceedings, and the hotel rate was \$20.00 for a single room. On the other hand, pre-registration fee for the 1989 conference in Little Rock was set at \$30.00 including a copy of the Proceedings and the single room rate was \$59.00, a figure which matched the previous high of that in 1983 for the conference in New Orleans. The 1983 conference was additionally significant in that it marked the third time the annual meeting had been held in New Orleans, previous years being 1968 and 1975. On several occasions, a separate fee had been charged (i.e., \$5.00) for the official publication of SCOLT: Dimension. This option in the registration package proved impractical and costly and was abandoned in 1985. Since then, the cost of a copy of the proceedings has been included in the registration package as had been the case originally.

The following chronology displays the convention sites (cities and hotels) for the period 1974 through 1989.

1974	Atlanta	Stouffers
1975	New Orleans	Hotel Monteleone
1976	Atlanta	Atlanta Biltmore
1977	Orlando	Carlton House
1978	San Antonio	The Saint Anthony
1979	Atlanta	Hyatt Regency
1980	Charleston	The Francis Marion
1981	Atlanta	Sheraton Airport
1982	Richmond	The John Marshall
1983	New Orleans	Sheraton New Orleans
1984	Birmingham	Birmingham Hilton
1985	Atlanta	Ramada at Capitol Plaza
1986	Orlando	Sheraton Orlando
1987	Atlanta	Westin Peachtree Plaza
1988	Charleston	Charleston Marriott
1989	Little Rock	Arkansas Excelsior

During the years 1975 and 1976, the Board of Directors of SCOLT had opted for a joint meeting between SCOLT and a state foreign language teacher organization. The only precedent for such an arrangement had been a meeting jointly held in Atlanta with ACTFL in 1972. A decision was reached to venture a joint conference with the Florida Foreign Language Association (FFLA) based on the recommendations of members of the SCOLT board who were also members of the FFLA board and influential teachers in the state of Florida.

The first year in Florida in 1977 was extremely successful since FFLA had a history and tradition of having a strong annual meeting and good attendance was assured since teachers statewide were given a professional leave to attend the meeting. More than 700 attended this meeting. In most cases, SCOLT has sought to work with the state language teachers associations, all of which have varied in degree of organization, influence, and presence from state to state.

The agreement signed by SCOLT and FFLA remained the model for joining conferences with state teachers organizations. The professional objective has always been that of bringing to the state with combined resources and personnel a much better conference that either of the groups could achieve alone. This objective has been met again and again throughout the twelve years of this program.

Organizations with SCOLT:

1977	Florida Foreign Language Association (FFLA)
1978	Texas Foreign Language Association (TFLA) and Texas Teachers of English as a Second Language (TEXTESOL)
1979	American Council on Teaching Foreign Language Teaching (ACTFL)
1980	South Carolina Conference on Foreign Language Teaching (SCCFLT)
1981	Foreign Language Association of Georgia (FLAG)
1982	Virginia State Department of Education
1983	Louisiana Foreign Language Teachers Association (LFLTA)
1984	Alabama Association of Foreign Language Teachers (AAFLT)

1985	Foreign Language Association of Georgia (FLAG)
1986	Florida Foreign Language Association (FFLA)
1987	American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)
1988	South Carolina Conference on Foreign Language Teaching (SCCFLT)
1989	Arkansas Foreign Language Teachers Association (AFLTA)

SCOLT has never been a rich conference. Money was borrowed for its founding and many believe that the early founders used their personal funds to defray expenses of those early conferences. Following a small turnout in Memphis in 1973, the coffers were nearly empty. The board rose to the emergency and through frugality and wit managed to survive and keep the organization afloat on an uncertain economic sea. Fortunately, succeeding endeavors provided adequate funds for the production of the annual conferences.

The major expenses of the corporation have been mainly those connected with the production of the annual conference. These have included but have not necessarily been limited to honoraria for speakers and workshop presenters, publication of the conference program and the proceedings, and expenses for publicity. Nevertheless, in January 1975, at the winter meeting, the SCOLT Board of Directors voted to compensate the Executive Secretary at a rate of \$25.00 per month; and in 1977, the salary was raised to \$50.00 per month. Then in 1982, the salary was increased to \$2500 per annum. Moreover, in 1982, the board adopted a precedent setting policy relative to appropriations and expenses when it voted to defray a portion of each member's expenses in attending the winter meeting. As a safety valve, two conditions had to be met: as a cap of \$200.00 was placed on the amount that one could receive and was payable only if the member could not procure funds from other sources, and, the corporation would pay for expenses only so long as funds were available in the treasury.

SCOLT derived its income principally from sponsors/patrons, exhibitors and registrations for the annual conference. A concerted effort on the part of the board has been made for years to keep the expenses within reach of teachers who wanted to attend the meeting but who had no financial support from this institution or school districts. The registration fee of \$35.00 in

Charleston in 1988 was the highest in the history of SCOLT, yet in comparison with registration fees of other similar conferences it was very reasonable. Likewise, the fee of \$40.00 for an institution as a sponsor was a new high when voted in 1987. For 25 years, SCOLT has had to do a lot with a little when it came to finances. Sponsors and patrons have been the most reliable source of income for the conference since its founding. Some colleges and organizations have been sponsors and/or patrons for years without interruption whereas others have come and gone, reflecting the changing perception of the worth of the conference as personnel have changed in their organizations. Since there are no membership dues, the contributions of the sponsors and patrons have been indispensable in providing the conference with seed money for carrying out its mission.

The corporation, Southern Conference on Language Teaching, Inc., is personified in a group of eight educators who are known as the Board of Directors of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching. It is they who are responsible for the operation of the corporation and the implementation of an annual meeting for teachers of languages in the region covered by the conference.

During the early years following its founding, the SCOLT Board of Directors was theoretically composed of persons who represented the twelve states served by the Conference. As a result, following the dissolution of the original Steering Committee, the Incorporators of the Conference (Sanford Newell, Karl Pond and George Wilkins) chose 12 as the number necessary to compose the Board of Directors. In 1982, the change was approved in 1982 to lower the number to eight members, by electing over a period of four years only two rather than three new members to the board.

Wisely, the founders did not empower the board to perpetuate itself as is the case in many such groups. The Advisory Board, composed of representatives of those who support SCOLT financially, (i.e., sponsors and patrons) elect each year those persons who have been placed in nomination by a committee made up of persons from the Board of Directors and the Advisory Board. The board has had staunch members who took their position seriously and promoted the cause of the organization.

As the members of the Board of Directors of SCOLT became aware that they could make a more significant contribution by

working in the month -to-month operation of the organization, working committees (program, finance, exhibits, editorial, publicity) were formed and began to make noticeable improvements in the operation of the organization. Most obvious to public view have been the program, editorial, and publicity endeavors.

Following the 1984 meeting in Birmingham, the Board appointed co-editors for the Proceedings of that year. Since that time, T. Bruce Fryer and Frank Medley have served as co-editors of the Dimension. In 1988, an editorial board of leading educators who publish was formed to referee articles chosen for publication. Thus the proceedings of the annual conference have been elevated from a compendium of papers read at a regional meeting to a prestigious journal of refereed scholarly articles with national renown. Some of those who consented to serve on the editorial board made significant contributions to SCOLT through other publications. In 1979 Genelle Morain edited a special edition of Dimension entitled Folklore: Linking Life to Language; and Thomas C. Cooper, edited a special publication of the ACTFL/SCOLT Task Force on Research in Foreign Language Education entitled Research Within Reach in 1985.

Providing a program that SCOLT conference participants have come to expect and which has substance as well as attraction has been no easy feat. The reputation of SCOLT in this arena has been outstanding. Coordinating and staging such an event have required time, patience, ingenuity and brains. This monumental task has been efficiently accomplished during the past five years by Rosalie Cheatham of Arkansas and Laura Walker of Oklahoma.

The following list shows the chairpersons of SCOLT, 1974-

1989:		
1974	Genelle Morain	Georgia
1975	Joanna Crane	Alabama
1976	Max Gartman	Alabama
1977	Mary Metz	Louisiana
1978	Frederick Jenks	Florida
1979	William Heflin	Tennessee
1980	Caro Feagin	Georgia
1981	Jack Brown	Mississippi
1982	Howard Altman	Kentucky
	Martha McClure	Georgia
1983	William Holdbrooks	Alabama
1984	William Holdbrooks	Alabama

1985	Frank Medley	S.Carolina
1986	Christa Kirby	Florida
1987	Robin Snyder	W.Virginia
1988	John Austin	Georgia
1989	Paula Fordham	S.Carolina

Those persons who have been members of the Board of Directors of the Southern Conference during the years 1975-1989 are listed below:

Howard Altman	1978-1982	Kentucky
Francis Amelincx	1988-	Louisiana
John Austin	1985-1989	Georgia
Rilda Baker	1980-1981	Texas
Wendolyn Bell	1973-1977	Tennessee
C. Lee Bradley	1984-1988	Georgia
Shirley Briggs	1979-1983	Tennessee
Jack Davis Brown	1977-1981	Mississippi
Carol Cargill	1986-	Florida
Rosalie Cheatham	1980-1983; 1985-1986; 1987-	Arkansas
William Clapper	1976-1980	Virginia
Joanna B. Crane	1971-1975; 1987-	Alabama
Dorothy DiOrio	1975-1979	Alabama
Gregory Duncan	1982-1985	Georgia
Caro Feagin	1976-1980	Georgia
Wayne Figart	1986-	North Carolina
James Ford	1979-1980	Arkansas
Paula Fordham	1980-1981; 1985-1989	South Carolina
Ernest Frechette	1976-1977; 1980-1984	Florida
T. Bruce Fryer	1976-1980	South Carolina
Max Gartman	1972-1976	Alabama
James S. Gates	1973-1974	Georgia
Barbara Gonzalez	1977-1981	Texas
Clemens Hallman	1974-1978	Florida
William Heflin	1975-1979	Tennessee
William Holdbrooks	1980-1984	Alabama
Fredreick Jenks	1974-1978	Florida
Mary Johnson	1971-1975	Florida
Christa Kirby	1983-1987	Florida

Frank Medley	1981-1985	South Carolina
Mary S. Metz	1974-1978	Louisiana/ Maryland
Martha McClure	1978-1982	Georgia
Genelle Morain	1971-1975	Georgia
W. Guy Oliver	1988-	Georgia
Evelyn Page	1981-1985	Virginia
Jeanne Palyok	1972-1976	South Carolina
Gloria Patron	1978-1982; 1985-1986	Louisiana
Marilyn Phillips	1979-1983	West Virginia
Flossie Foxx Rann	1977-1980	North Carolina
Sue Reynolds	1972-1976	Tennessee
Helen V. Saunders	1975-1979	West Virginia
Arlene Schrade	1982-1985	Mississippi
Robin Snyder	1983-1987	West Virginia
Laura J. Walker	1984-1988	Louisiana/ Oklahoma
George Wilkins	1973-1977	Louisiana

In conclusion, many organizations devoted to language learning, teaching and research have maintained the necessary continuity and, to some extent, established their identity through an officer of the organization. The Executive Secretary of SCOLT has been the key person in the operation of the Corporation from its founding. Whereas chairpersons have served usually only a year, the Executive Secretary, elected by the Board, has served many terms, ex officio. Bostick, Epting, Gates and Bradley, with a few short-termers interspersed, have served the organization as Executive Secretary during these first twenty-five years, and the Corporation and the conferences have been stamped by their personalities, styles, and competencies.

The duties of the office have changed through the years from those of being a general secretary to those of being the chief executive officer who has been given the legal responsibilities of serving as custodian of the funds, the seal and the legal documents of the corporation. The Executive Secretary has always worked with the conference chairperson and more recently with the program chairperson in planning, developing and carrying out the annual conference, a feat of tremendous portions. Until the establishment in 1984 of the

post of Editor of the Proceedings, the Executive Secretary received from the chairperson the manuscript of Dimension and had the task of getting the work copyrighted, published and distributed. The reduction in size of the Board in 1982 resulted, among other things, in members becoming more involved in the operation of the organization from conference to conference. The Executive Secretary became less the tireless toiler and more the shrewd coordinator of all the many activities being carried out and designed to culminate in an outstanding annual conference. Remuneration for this officer began with a "thanks for a job well-done" and became a tangible in 1975 with an honorarium of two thousand five hundred dollars per annum. A great professional commitment has been demonstrated by the persons who have served as Secretary-Treasurer and Executive Secretary of the Southern Conference.

Looking back historically, one can recall that in the eighteenth century only a few political theorists dreamed that the United States of America would rise to the stature of a world power; only a few educators in the nineteenth century believed that such a vast number of the colleges and universities founded in that century would survive as prestigious centers of learning; and, only a few language teachers thought that the Southern Conference would survive in the turbulent twentieth century. Not only has the Southern Conference survived, it has, in the words of a famous Southern writer, prevailed. As the years have passed, the Conference has grown and has triumphed because of those who demonstrated their devotion, commitment and loyalty either as officers, Board members, attendees, sponsors, patrons, presenters, presidents, exhibitors or well-wishers. Those who were involved during this year in the history of the organization would be likened unto a runner in a relay race who received the baton from the founders. Taken smoothly and without breaking stride, the baton was carried carefully so that the next runner had neither time nor distance to make up as the course turned into the nineties. From the successful hands of those of the years of progress into hands of even greater potential, the legacy of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching, with all its vicissitudes, has been fervently passed. Selah.

1975-1979

MULTI-SENSORY EXERCISES: AN APPROACH TO COMMUNICATIVE PRACTICE

(Reprinted from Dimension: 1975)

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During the 1950's and 60's drills as a learning and practice technique dominated the language scene. The concept fit into the philosophy of the time which stressed formation of new and automatic language habits. The present decade brought a new emphasis. Tired of tedious repetitions, substitutions, and transformations which were made without thought for the messages behind them, the profession underscored the importance of meaningfulness--a quality which is realized when learners feel they are really communicating something of value to them.

The idea of practicing with drills has been almost lost in this new communication trend. The present direction is to let the learner say what is meaningful to him--a powerful motivational force, but a rather quixotic dream when not tempered with the reality of laying a foundation of basic structural competence. There is no easy way to learn foreign languages. A student either comes to grips with learning structural and syntactic elements or he does not learn to communicate, unless he is to be content with a Tarzan-type system ("Me Tarzan, you Jane").

What can realistically be expected of a student left to his own devices for language practice? Chances are he will be hard pressed to come up with ways to use what he has studied cognitively. He needs help, and he looks to the instructor to provide some context for going beyond the analysis stage of language learning. What kind of context must it be? Certainly it cannot replicate that of the artificial and boredom-producing drills of the fifties and sixties. Somehow it must be meaningful and

communicative and at the same time be structured sufficiently to give practice toward functional command of basic grammatical components.

I shall pursue this quest in this paper, first by presenting a brief review of the communicative status of drills, and second by sharing a technique which may hold the promise of bringing drill activity closer to communication than perhaps it ever has been.

My first step is to make a plea for moderation. It is tempting to give ourselves to every new idea or trend that comes along, our enthusiastic support of which often causes us to deny or at least to forget the wisdom gained from accumulated learning of the past. Applying the concept of moderation to practicing the foreign language in the classroom, I suggest we hold up the caution sign to those who, in their zeal for communication, would have us alienate ourselves from anything reminiscent of drill practice. We rightly confess the limitations of the drill era of past decades, but likewise we can attribute to it certain strengths.

Although drills are characteristically mechanical in nature and have suffered extensive abuse, they provide a means of gaining functional control of linguistic units which otherwise might not be acquired. Illustrative of this point are the repetition drill and the substitution drill. The former is often done in pronunciation practice aimed at refining production of certain sounds. Emphasis here is on articulation, and no pretense is made to hide its mechanical nature. The substitution drill can be carried out with structural or lexical changes to develop automatic use of linguistic units in varied contexts. Although some teachers undoubtedly use this type of drill on a purely mechanical level, probably most recognize its potentially damaging effect on student interest, and in one way or another, attempt to get students to think about what they are saying during the exercise. This is done easily with nouns. Wilkins¹ points out how in the stimulus--"I'm looking for the watch."--the noun can be cued with a picture or, better yet, with the object itself. Teachers with a good understanding of "audiolingualism" enhanced their drill work with this kind of visual impact. They likewise brought in meaningfulness with other elements too, for one need not stop with nouns but can deal meaningfully with verbs as well. It is true that verbs are often of an abstract nature (for example, hope, feel, want) whose meaning is hard to define thorough visual aids. When no other recourse exists on such items, a rapid-fire translation may prove of value. But in many situations (for

example, "I'm looking for the watch.") students' memory on the meaning of the verb can be jogged through dramatization, if the instructor can cope with a certain amount of clownish behavior without feeling foolish in front of his students.

Professional literature has its recommendations and descriptions of drills which are supposed to make language practice more meaningful and hence more palatable to students. Many of the attempts, however, tend to share a common feature of superficiality of intent, for it is obvious that as they are conducted, the instructor is not really interested in the responses for the sake of their message, but rather for language practice itself. Such a tendency is often seen in question answer practice; for example, "Are you cold?" or "Do you like to go to the beach?" Although such questions conceivably could arise out of situations which elicit sincere concern on the part of the instructor toward the student's state of feelings, they are generally intended for mere practice of structural forms. We can expect the student to be rather bored with the whole activity because, as Rivers says, he ". . . is not communicating anything that is of real import to him nor receiving any genuine message."²

A drill which comes somewhat closer to reality is one called the communication drill.³ Here, according to Paulston, "The student has free choice of answer, and the criterion of selection here is his own opinion of the real world--whatever he wants to say." The question "What did you have for breakfast?" for example, although likely to elicit a reply about food, still gives the learner a choice of foods, but furthermore allows the possibility of an answer like "I overslept and skipped breakfast so I wouldn't miss the bus." Students must be instructed to answer truthfully to make this kind of drill successful. It is obviously a drill for more advanced students.

Another attempt toward communication with drill is made by Palmer, in which a hypothetical situation is established for student response. He suggests, for example, that students be presented with the following stimulus: "Karen, if you and Susan came to class at 8 a.m. and it was winter and the room was dark at 8 a.m., what would you tell Susan?"⁴ Although this drill may have merit with foreign students learning English and perhaps with learners of some other languages, it unfortunately has shortcomings with a language like Spanish. In eliciting the answer--"I would tell Susan to turn on the light"--it is limited for use with advanced students having studied the conditional tense

and the past subjunctive. But more serious is that, like so many other drill approaches intended for meaningful practice, it has no built-in indicators to insure that students will understand the meaning of the various language elements contained in the stimulus. The idea of understanding the stimulus is a most important point, for no student can proceed with the problem to be practiced when he is confused over the elements of the very first step.

We are faced, therefore, with the task of finding a type of drill which applies to any level of a language and which at the same time stimulates and maintains student interest as well as makes the meaning of the units being drilled crystal clear. A strategy believed to provide the foundation for a drill with this unique combination of elements is the Audio-Motor Unit--a technique designed initially for developing listening comprehension⁵ and later extended successfully to the teaching of culture.⁶ Further use of the Audio-Motor Unit at the University of Georgia has shown its promise as an important means for conducting meaningful drill.

The Audio-Motor Unit basically involves a series of commands on a central theme which is presented orally and acted out by the teacher for students to listen to and observe. Later, students are asked to join in the motor activity as they hear the commands. These steps capitalize on the combined effect of learning through sound, sight and physical movement. To give all members of this multi-language audience an opportunity to see the pedagogical possibilities of this technique, I shall give a number of commands in an imaginary language and act them out. I shall ask you to associate the oral utterances with the motor activity toward the end of being able to respond physically yourselves when you hear the cues.

- | | |
|---------------|--------------------------|
| kufasa munaki | (Raise your arms.) |
| kifoka zani | (Extend them sideways.) |
| kifoka ná | (Extend them backwards.) |
| kifoka sú | (Extend them forward.) |
| petu manafa | (Move your finger.) |
| kumana munaki | (Lower your arms.) |

Now listen and observe again. (Above repeated.) Now join with me in the actions this third time as you hear the commands. (Above repeated.) To test what you have learned, now obey a fourth repetition of the commands without my model movements for imitation.

As you can see, comprehension of the strange sounds of a new language quickly takes place, because the meanings behind the sounds are obvious through motor response. The combination of sight, sound and motor activity seems to facilitate learning. A caution in using this strategy, which I am sure you have recognized through participation in the exercise, is to mix up the commands in subsequent practice sessions; otherwise, students tend to memorize the sequence of actions without regard for the sounds, which action is of course alien to our purpose.

Recognizing the possibility that the sample unit shown may be held by some to be too bizarre or infantile for use with their particular level of students, I call your attention to the fact that units can be designed on any number of themes, many of which fit in nicely with the classroom environment. For example:

EnglishSpanish

Pick up the book.

Coge el libro.

Wipe off the cover.

Limpia la tapa.

Open the book.

Abre el libro.

Put your finger on
the page.

Pon el dedo en la
página.

Put it at the top of
the page

Ponlo arriba en la
página.

At the bottom of the
page.

Al pie de la página.

Go to the front of
the book.

Anda al principio del
libro.

Go to the back of
the book.

Anda al final del
libro.

Go to the middle of
the book.

Anda al medio del
libro.

Slam it shut.

Ciérralo de golpe.

So far we have dealt only with listening comprehension. A logical continuation is to use the Audio-Motor Unit as a foundation for speaking activity. Any one of the commands can serve as a base for extensive pattern practice either in terms of new learning or review. When the instructor utters and then acts out "Pick up the book," for example, he can provide speaking practice with both subject and verb form changes as illustrated through the following:

- Instructor: Pick up the book, John.
What are you doing?
John: I'm picking up the book.
Instructor: What is John doing, Mary?
Mary: He's picking up the book.
Instructor: I'm picking up the book, too.
What are you and I doing, John?
John: We're picking up the books.
Instructor: Pick up the books, John and Mary.
What are they doing, Joe?
Joe: They're picking up the books.

What has been done so far is to pull out a command learned in its Audio-Motor Unit context and to add a fourth reinforcing element--speaking--to the already experienced modalities of sight, sound and motor activity. A highly communicative drill is established through the instructor's questions followed by student understanding of the element being practiced (to pick up) through motor responses.

Without straining communication, the same questions can also be asked in the context of other tenses and modes. If we were dealing with Spanish, for example, we would find it appropriate to practice the following tenses: present (cojo), present progressive (estoy cogiendo), past progressive (estaba cogiendo), imperfect (cogia), preterite (cogi), present perfect (he cogido), and past perfect (habia cogido). Even future tense can be practiced when the following kind of cue is given: "Tomorrow you'll pick up the book, John. Show me and tell me what you'll do tomorrow." Speaking practice in the imperative mode can also be provided (for example, "John, tell Mary to pick up the book").

Of course, certain stock questions with their appropriate verb forms (for example, "What are you doing?," "What did you do?," etc.) will have to be memorized first. But once these are learned, a whole new area of communication activity is opened up.

So far, a considerable amount of interesting practice has been done with one verb only. Other forms can also be extracted from the commands and practiced within their motor contexts. "Wipe off the book," "Put your finger on the top of the page," "Go to the back of the book," etc. provide even further structural and syntactic practice.

Situation is limited only to the extent of the instructor's imagination in designing Audio-Motor Units around which drills are

built. Commands requiring students to respond physically and then to talk about the response can produce highly interesting and even hilarious situations which, of course, not only provide talk with understanding but which also hold the attention of the entire class.

This approach to language practice is not entirely new. Drills presented by means of sequential situations were recommended by Gouin⁷ in the nineteenth century as well as by Jespersen⁸ back in 1904. In more recent times, Oller and Obrecht⁹ conducted an experiment on what they termed "informational sequence" which supported learning through a sequential situation approach. Schumann¹⁰ likewise argued for its use as he described the "Situational Reinforcement" technique of the Institute of Modern Languages in Washington, D.C. Paralleling the Audio-motor Unit idea in many respects, "Situational Reinforcement" has grown into a method for which materials are being produced commercially.¹¹ Like other drills, however, it contrasts significantly in its assumption that students will understand the stimulus (for example, "Juan, do you have any change?")¹² on the basis of previous learning. The Audio-Motor based drill, on the other hand, ensures meaning as it combines an oral command with physical action on the part of the teacher for all to see and then to be reinforced by motor response. A limitation, of course, is that it can deal only with verbs whose meaning can be acted out. There are hundreds of verbs, however, that fall into this category and which furthermore can be learned in a variety of structural contexts. The Audio-Motor based drill, then, holds promise for a great deal of effective practice in the classroom.

Up to now I have discussed meaningful drill practice in the context of hearing, seeing, motor response and speaking. A fifth reinforcing agent--writing--might also be added, but it would present some problems for the students in its irregularities in orthography. Other reinforcers may be more practical. The senses of touch, taste, sound and smell, for example, seem to present a means of extending even further the idea of multi-sensory exercises. Consider the following English-Spanish Audio-Motor Unit.

Pick up the bottle of wine.
Coge la botella de vino.

Run your fingers over the bottle.
Pasa los dedos por la botella.

It's smooth.
Es lisa.

Touch the neck of the bottle.
Toca el pico de la botella.

Touch the fat part.
Toca la parte de abajo.

Touch the cork. It's dry, isn't it?
Toca el corcho. Está seco, ¿verdad?

Squeeze it. It's spongy.
Apriétalo. Parece esponjoso.

Throw it up in the air.
Tíralo al aire.

It's light.
Es liviano.

Smell the wine.
Huele el vino.

Take out your handkerchief.
Saca tu pañuelo.

Pour a little wine on it.
Moja el pañuelo con el vino.

Feel the wet part.
Toca la parte mojada.

Pick up a glass and the bottle.
Coge un vaso y la botella.

Clink the bottle and the glass.
Suenan la botella con el vaso.

Listen to the clink.
Escucha el sonido.

Pour a little wine.
Sírvene un vaso de vino.

Taste it.
Pruébalo.

How sour! Make a face.
¡Qué agrio! Haz una mueca.

Pound the bottle against the table
Golpea la botella contra la mesa.

Listen to the loud sound.
Escucha el sonido que hace.
Es alto, ¿verdad?

Pound the bottle against your hand.
Golpea la botella contra la mano.

Listen to the thud.
Escucha el sonido que hace.
Es bajo, ¿verdad?

A quick analysis of this unit shows its construction to be centered around four additional sensory perceptions: (1) touch (for example, "Run your fingers over the bottle. It's smooth."); (2) taste (for example, "Taste it. It's sour."); (3) sound (for example, "Listen to the clink."); and, (4) smell (for example, "Smell the wine."). Accompanying the already built-in reinforcers of the basic Audio-Motor Unit (hearing, seeing and motor activity), the additional senses of touch, taste, sound and smell all combine to create a practice exercise replete with meaningfulness. Insertion of speaking practice extends the usefulness of the exercise even more.

As a final part of this discussion, I will make a few comments about testing procedures with multi-sensory exercises. I will limit my remarks to paper and pencil tests in a group setting, an approach which I see as decidedly inferior to face-to-face testing

of individual students, but which is more practical in terms of time required for administration.

The listening portion of an Audio-Motor Unit can easily be tested by translation of the foreign language commands to English. Although translation holds the disadvantage of forcing the student to switch from one linguistic system to another, it takes advantage of the native language to determine quite precisely the extent of listening comprehension skill. Its strength lies in its requirement for active production on the part of the student rather than for selection of multiple choice items which is mere recognition or passive knowledge.

Going beyond listening comprehension, students can be asked to respond in writing in the foreign language as the instructor utters an oral command followed by a question eliciting description of the related motor activity; for example,
Instructor's oral command: Pick up the bottle of wine.
Instructor's oral question: What am I doing?

Student's written reply: You're picking up the bottle of wine.

The second approach is similar to the first except that in place of the oral command the instructor acts it out. Students associate the language they learned which accompanies the motor activity, and in the foreign language they write what the instructor is doing. Of course, as with the actual drill sessions used for learning the language forms, tense changes ("What did I do?," "What have I done?," etc.) as well as pronoun changes are employed for testing.

In conclusion, I think it is fair to admit that there is an element of quixotism in all this talk about communication in the foreign language classroom unless we are talking about teachers who have a good deal of language proficiency themselves. Perhaps this is the reason why some, recognizing their limitations, resort to teaching merely the forms of the language. Gaarder¹³ suggests aiding them by furnishing a manual which contains the language needed for the communicative venture. This may be useful, but it cannot help but fail to provide all the language, especially that which so often must occur spontaneously. What is needed is a personal command of the language of common everyday speech, which is difficult to acquire except through extensive linguistic contact with native speakers. Some teachers may be fortunate to have this opportunity available to them in their own communities, while others, at considerable sacrifice, may have to seek it out elsewhere, even to the point of taking up

periodic residence abroad. The important point is that some kind of continual growth in competence with the foreign language be experienced by all of us. Through our design of multi-sensory exercises we will undoubtedly be confronted by our inadequacies with common everyday forms of our second language. We talk easily about lessons in the textbook, but can we handle the myriads of other situations that make up ordinary speech? As we attempt to write meaningful exercises for use in our classrooms we will undoubtedly falter at one time or another. But here is where contact with native speakers will avail us in both design of materials and increase in personal language proficiency.

Teaching for communication calls for a supportive relationship between communicative techniques and teacher competence in the language. I believe we must be continually concerned with both elements, for without them, it will be difficult to make our foreign language teaching really very exciting and meaningful.

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1980-1984

THE REUSABLE COMMUNICATION FORMAT

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There is great interest in the foreign language profession today in helping students to use the target language in meaningful ways, to accomplish real-life purposes via their new language. To help our students to do this, however, we need classroom activities appropriate to the objective, activities which facilitate the exchange of real information. Yet at least some of these activities must be suited to the limited repertoire of the beginner, who constitutes the bulk of our enrollments; and because teachers don't have endless time to seek out different formats, it would be very useful for us to have available formats that can be reused with different content as we move from topic to topic.

In addition, we need activities which will help students to communicate about the significant notions in the target language (common topics such as clothing, food, body parts, furnishings, etc. and common situations such as buying food, servicing a car, banking, etc.) and the more important functions in the target language (persuading, informing, implementing, apologizing, disagreeing, etc.). While we recognize students' needs to practice the linguistic structures of the language, we have decided that this practice must occur in meaningful, communicative contexts. Following a discussion of benefits of the small group format and factors to keep in mind when using it, I shall discuss characteristics of the good activity and then present examples of six different reusable small-group communication formats.

Besides needing a body of interesting activities that facilitate communicative interaction in the above four categories we also need formats for our activities which maximize the students' opportunities to use the language. A student in a class of 30 may get to speak only 1/30th of the time available for student participation. Further, the amount of time devoted to student participation may be quite small. Many studies have estimated teacher talk as taking 50 to 80 percent of total class time, as most of the types of talk in most classrooms are teacher-centered (Kramsch, 1981). Even in those whole-group activities that are directed at student oral work, the teacher speaks 50 percent of the time in the usual teacher-student interaction pattern (Valette, 1978). These statistics suggest that there is a great potential advantage in small group work. Working with the whole class at once minimizes the amount of time that any one student is directly involved and may also maximize loss of attention between "turns." In small group activities each student participates much more frequently. Teacher-talk is minimized, and a student in a group of four should be able to participate 1/4 of the time. Thus his/her opportunities for meaningful exchanges are greatly increased. Further, the student gets to communicate with someone besides the teacher. The teacher is not the only person with whom the student can have a valuable communicative exchange, and the move to communication-centered teaching calls for a move from teacher-centered to group-centered (Eckard and Kearny, 1981).

By small group we mean any grouping of from two to six persons. For second language learning purposes any larger grouping doesn't permit or ensure sufficient participation by each group member.

BENEFITS AND ADVANTAGES

The potential benefits and advantages to using small group communications activities can be great. As noted previously, an obvious first benefit is in the increased amount of time available to each student to participate. In addition, there could be numerous affective benefits. First of all, studies of students' projected goals in second language study and of their post-class reactions to second-language study indicate that the students most valued learning to speak (Westphal, 1978). A small-group

communication emphasis offers the potential to help the students meet their speaking objectives.

Further, many second-language students are shy about speaking before a whole class. The small group format has the potential to alleviate that shyness (Paulston and Selekman, 1978). Students generally feel much more comfortable about participating in a group of three or four other learners.

Motivation is often greater in a small group activity. As previously noted, the student doesn't have to wait so long between turns when working in a small group. His/her attention is less likely to wander. Further, when real information is being exchanged, interpersonal involvement among the students is greater (Ur, 1981). Attention is less likely to wander for this reason also. Altogether then, the possible affective benefits of this format are numerous.

Small-group communication can also constitute integrated language practice. Further, this practice is occurring in a natural, contexted manner (Littlewood, 1981). In order to participate in open-ended activities, the student is called upon to synthesize his/her knowledge of linguistic structures, vocabulary domains, and registers within the target language (Yalden, 1981). While participating in more tightly structured activities, the student practices patterns that reflect a synthesis of forms, vocabulary and registers; and this practice may ultimately enable him/her to participate effectively in the open-ended activities. In addition, the student is learning to fulfill the functions of language and to communicate real needs and meanings in the target language ((Urzua, 1981). The functions become part of the synthesis as they are integrated with the aforementioned forms, vocabulary, and registers. And finally, all this integrated practice is accomplished within the appropriate cultural frame, as the student implements the target culture's particular formulas for disagreeing, apologizing, turn-taking, etc. (Eckard and Kearny, 1981).

Another benefit relates to time and material. If involving all students is a teacher's goal, this involvement can be accomplished more efficiently in a small-group situation than in a whole-class activity. A six-item activity gives each student a turn if a class of 30 is working in groups of six, whereas 30 items are required in a whole group activity if all students are to participate. Further, only six time units instead of 30 are needed to give everyone a turn. Clearly the teacher has to prepare less material and has more time available for other activities.

The small-group communication approach can be expected to motivate and relax students, to let them participate far more, and to afford them increased opportunities for integrated language use, thus meeting their own goals and those of their teachers.

FACTORS TO CONSIDER IN IMPLEMENTATION

The following represent teacher reservations about small-group activities and possible solutions:

- (1) "Beginners don't know enough to do such an activity." Actually they do, as there are many formats that make use of a quite limited range of vocabulary and structures.
- (2) "Students won't stay on task."
Students need preparations for group work. They need to understand the importance and benefits of what they are doing, and they need to have ground rules (Moskowitz, 1978). They also need a clear goal for the end of the activity. Thus prepared, most will usually stay on task. In addition, the teacher can offer "check" points to a group to see if the person called on can repeat what was just said in the group."
- (3) "Forming groups disrupts the class."
Don't number off or scatter to form groups. Let students work with others according to where they are already seated.
- (4) "Preparing the materials takes too much time."
Time is saved by not having to prepare whatever these activities replace. Further, as noted earlier, fewer items are required to give each group member one or more turns than to give each class one or more turns in the whole group. And finally, activities once prepared can be used again and again.
- (5) "Students will make errors that won't be corrected."
Students in groups engage in peer teaching, helping one another express themselves effectively. Yet, certainly, they will make some uncorrected mistakes, as the teacher cannot hear the work of all groups at once; and teachers generally feel that it is a serious matter to let students speak incorrectly. Nevertheless, the beginner at self-expression must make mistakes, and students who have the opportunity throughout their study to use the target language creatively will ultimately use the language more effectively, more

extensively and more correctly than those who say little, however, correct (Savignon, 1978). Further, the use of more controlled activities for beginners will minimize errors.

- (6) "One student will do all the work."

Build the activity so that all group members are required to participate. If students are each given a part of the information necessary to complete the task, for example, this will happen.

- (7) "The students will get stuck and will revert to their native language."

Several factors can mitigate this problem. Encouraging peer teaching will cause students to provide vocabulary for one another. The teacher can supply items as needed as well while moving from group to group. The use of more controlled formats for beginners will also help, as will teaching/encouraging students to circumlocute in the target language. Students should also be provided with the vocabulary in the target language that is necessary to complete the activity if they don't already have it (Smith, 1981).

All in all, most potential problems in the use of small-group communication activities can be avoided by careful planning of the material and procedures and by preparing the students appropriately for the work that they are to do.

RECOGNIZING/CREATING THE GOOD ACTIVITY

The primary concern in selecting or writing small-group communication activities is finding a format that is based neither on free conversation, as this is unlikely to be understood by less-advanced students, nor on totally mechanical patterns that communicate nothing meaningful (Krashen, 1981). The format has to be understood but yet must be partially open-ended to allow for meaningful personalized communication. The amount of control will be further discussed below.

Another concern is to find a format that will generate more extended responses. Too many languages can be dealt with by using one-word responses. While vocabulary activities have their place, activities that call for the use of more extended responses will go further to facilitate communications goals. When using games or small-group activities, teachers should look for materials that involve the exchange or expression of real information.

Clearly such activities must be interesting to students in order to be successful. What is of interest is often difficult to determine. Personalization goes far in this direction, however. When students are expressing their own preferences, opinions and experiences to one another, they tend to be interested even if the topic in question is rather mundane. Using meaningful material about the participants rather than third-person mechanical material is also more effective (Littlewood, 1981). Students will care more about expressing what they did yesterday than about changing a group of sentences to past tense.

The task in question should be such that all students in each group can do it, assuming appropriate prior preparation, although perfection of performance is not necessary. Comprehension and participation are.

Material in such activities should relate to the syllabus, the test, or expressed student needs. It should not be the sort of activity that the students can view as a time-killer only. It should call for students to use everyday language as would be required in real-life situations, and if it also reinforces or practices the use of a structure or a vocabulary domain, all the better (Zelson, 1978). It should also have the student becoming familiar with language as used in the target culture, revealing norms of register or function appropriate to that culture.

In practical terms the activity should be reasonably simple for the teacher to prepare material for, to prepare the students for, and to implement. It should fit into the teacher's desired time frame (perhaps ten to thirty minutes), and it should be conducive to work by groups of from two to six students. If it is to be used for beginners, there should be a readily identifiable response range so that appropriate phrases and vocabulary options can be taught to the students first. The format should facilitate participation by all members of each group.

If all or even most of these criteria are met in selecting or preparing activities, success is much more nearly assured. The teacher will also be interested in identifying formats that have been successful with his/her students previously, so that these can be modified for new topics and reused.

SOME SAMPLE REUSABLE COMMUNICATIONS FORMATS

Use of the following formats facilitates the development of listening and speaking skills. The formats are reusable and can be redone with material from a variety of lessons.

Because the activities are done in small groups, each student's opportunity to participate is maximized. He/she gets to speak one-fourth of the time in group of four, instead of one-thirtieth of the time in a group of thirty.

The material should be as "real" and as personalized as possible, as in the examples to be demonstrated. This "realness" and personalization enhance both motivation and clarity of meaning, which often results in greater learning. Students enjoy the face-to-face practice and the opportunity to share real information, as opposed to practicing or manipulating essentially meaningless patterns.

I. ROLEPLAY (See below)

The teacher practices the phrases, questions, and sample dialogs with students. Then small groups create their own dialog for the incomplete dialogs and situations provided on the handout and perform them for the class. Each group may choose a situation, or the teacher may assign them.

II. DIRECTED DIALOG CARDS

Although the cards should be based on familiar material, the teacher may wish to review the vocabulary and/or phrases to be used. Then each group of students receives a packet of cards or slips. Each person in turn is to draw a card and look at the "ask" or "tell" side only. He/she then "asks" or "tells" according to the instructions, addressing another student in the group, who responds appropriately. They can then check their performance by looking at the sample question and answer on the back of the card. The teacher goes from group to group offering assistance. It is desirable to have three or four times as many cards as students per group.

Sample Card:

Ask someone
where he/she
usually studies

¿Dónde estudias
generalmente?

Generalmente
estudio
en mi recámara ____

III. CHAINS

Each group gets a set of cards, one or two per student. Each card contains a familiar statement and answer format in the target language. Each student in turn starts his/her chain, which then goes around the group. He makes the statement given on his card (e.g., "My birthday is May 13th.") and asks the related question on the card of the person on his right (e.g., "When is your birthday?") who answers and asks the same question of the third person. When this question has gone around the group, the second person begins his "chain." The teacher goes from group to group, offering assistance.

IV. ADD-ONS

Each group gets a set of cards, one or two per student. Each card contains a familiar but incomplete statement in the target language. The first student in the group starts his/her statement, (e.g., "At the store last week I bought ____."), which then goes around the group with each person repeating what has already been said and adding on appropriately. When the first statement has gone around the group, the second student starts his/hers.

V. SITUATIONS

Each group gets a packet of cards, two per student. Each card describes a situation (in the native or the target language). Each student reads a card to himself, not letting others see it. Then student #1 monologs what he/she would say in that situation in the target language for the group, who must guess the situation. For example, he reads, "You see a child crying in front of the school. You go up to him and say something" and he says "¿Qué tienes, hijito? ¿Qué te pasó?" After the others

guess the situation, then the second person monologs for his/her situation, etc.

IV. INTERVIEWS

The teacher rehearses a set of questions and response formats with the class. Then the students are each to interview four other people with the questions, taking note of responses. After all have finished, the teacher rehearses report formats with the students, who then each report on one item of their choice.

For example, the interview might be:

¿Cómo se llama?

¿A qué persona famosa quiere conocer?

¿Qué ciudad quiere visitar?

¿Cuál es su color favorito?

The response formats would then be:

Me llamo _____

Quiero conocer a _____

Quiero visitar _____

Mi color favorito es _____

And the report formats would be

_____(name)_____ quiere conocer a

_____(famous person)_____.

_____(name)_____ quiere visitar

_____(place)_____.

El color favorito de _____(name)_____ es

_____(color)_____.

Interviews can also be done with cards in small groups. Each group receives a packet of six cards. Each card has from one to three familiar questions with answer and report formats (see above). Each student asks his question(s) of the others in the group. All may speak at once (in pairs), or the teacher may direct that the others listen while each one asks. Then the teacher calls for reports from several (large class) or all (small class) students.

Note: On all activities teacher should interact afterward with students, using same items, in order to doublecheck comprehension, appropriateness of responses, etc.

Teacher should also extend the activity by asking any appropriate related questions.

ROLE PLAY: INVITATIONS

I. Expressions to practice

A. Asking and Explaining

I'm having a _____.

I'm going to _____ on _____
at _____.

Would you like to come?

Can you come?

Will you come?

Will you join us?

Would you be able to come?

We'd like you to come to _____ at _____
on _____.

It's on _____ at _____.

Are you free?

How about _____?

B. Accepting and Asking

I'd love to come.

I'd like to come.

I'll be there.

That's great!

How nice of you!

When is it?

I think so.

What time?

I'll look forward to it.

C. Declining

I'm sorry but I can't.

I'm busy then.

What a shame! I'll be out of town.

I hope you'll ask me again sometime.

D. Accepting response

I'm so glad.

My address is _____.

We'll see you then.

That's too bad.
Well, maybe next time.
We'll miss you.
It's at _____.

II. Sample to Practice

- A. Hi, Susie. I'm having a birthday party next week. Can you come?
I'd like to come. When is it?
It's on Friday at 4 o'clock.
That's great! I'll be there.
- B. Hi, Bill. This is Patsy. We'd like you to come to dinner next Tuesday. Are you free?
Yes, I think so. What time?
How about 7 o'clock.
That's fine. I'll look forward to it.
Great. We'll see you then.

III. Dialogs to Complete

- A. Joe: Hi, Mary. I'm having a party on Friday at seven.
Can you come?
Mary: _____.
Joe: Oh, what a shame. _____.
Mary: _____.
- B. Judy: Paul, we're having a Christmas party on the 23rd. Will you join us?
Paul: _____.
Judy: That's great. It's at seven o'clock.
Paul: _____.

IV. Situations to Roleplay

You want to invite a friend to your house for a party.
You want to invite a friend to the movies.
You want to invite a friend to dinner at your house.

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1985-1989

THE SYMPOSIUM ON THE EVALUATION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY: CHALLENGES TO THE PROFESSION

(Reprinted from Dimension: 1987)

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INTRODUCTION

The ETS-ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) has had a profound impact on the foreign language (FL) teaching profession over the last four or five years.¹ There is scarcely any area of the field that has not been affected by this attempt to institute a national metric based on demonstrated proficiency in a FL and, more importantly, to define achievement in language instruction in terms of functional use rather than command of a specific body of material or, as Barbara Freed has put it, mere "seat-time."

But what has come to be called the "Proficiency Movement" involves much more than the development and dissemination of a particular instrument for the evaluation of demonstrable functional use of a FL. At the heart of the Movement are the ACTFL Guidelines which are viewed by some of its proponents as a veritable blueprint for the planning and delivery of FL instruction at the high school and university level. The generic guidelines define global proficiency levels in terms of three sets of judgments; (1) the ability to carry out certain functions using the target language, (2) the ability to deal with certain topic or content units, (3) the ability to produce a range of structural and discourse features with accuracy. Proponents of the Proficiency Movement stress the experiential rather than hypothetical nature

of the Guidelines (Omaggio, p. 35), and they are confident that they can be used to specify inventories of elements whose control will lead students to attain specified levels of proficiency.

Because these guidelines and definitions represent actual rather than hypothetical language production, teachers can amend their expectations for students' linguistic and communicative development to conform to reality. The descriptions should prove useful in designing language programs, in the sense that they outline general performance criteria and specify the kinds of contexts and situations handled with reasonable ease at each level of competence Once we have identified, at least in terms of general performance criteria, what students have to know in order to function at or beyond a given level of competence, we will have come a long way toward knowing what it is we have to teach (Omaggio, p. 35).

There is general agreement that the Proficiency Movement launched by ACTFL has invigorated FL instruction and that it has had a beneficial backwash effect on a variety of areas from teacher training to material development and pedagogical procedures. Nonetheless several aspects of the OPI and the Guidelines have elicited severe reservations on the part of FL teaching methodologists and applied linguists who, like the proponents of the Proficiency Movement, place a high priority on the acquisition of functional skills by FL students. Unfortunately there has been little direct interaction between proponents of the Proficiency Movement and its critics. Yet this interaction could be mutually profitable, for it would lead to urgently needed research that would provide a firmer theoretical and empirical basis for not only a national FL proficiency metric but also for attempts to link levels of communicative ability in a FL to stages of acquisitional development. It was precisely in order to initiate this type of interaction that a Symposium on the Evaluation of FL Proficiency was held on the Bloomington Campus of Indiana University, March 4-6, 1987. To lay the groundwork for the Symposium, a workshop was organized in conjunction with the 1986 annual meeting of ACTFL in Dallas.

Based on the favorable reactions that followed the Workshop, approximately 30 American specialists of FL teaching

methodology or applied linguistics were invited to prepare reports to be distributed in advance or to serve as discussants and resource persons at the Symposium.² They were selected from experts who have in various ways been concerned with the development of communicative ability in a FL and the assessment of that ability; (1) those involved in the development and the administration of the OPI and the elaboration of the ACTFL Guidelines; (2) those involved in the training and certification of OPI rates; (3) those involved in the elaboration of communicatively-oriented curricula, syllabuses, teaching procedures, and materials; (4) those involved in the observation and analysis of second language learning. The participants represented a broad range of second and foreign language teaching situations; the commonly taught languages (French, German, and Spanish) and the major less commonly taught languages (Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Indonesian, Russian, and Sub-Sahara African languages) in the United States; indigenous languages of Europe; and the teaching of English as a second language. In addition to the participants several overseas observers were invited, especially from Western Europe where FL teaching specialists have taken the lead in developing communicatively-oriented programs and international schemes for the definition and assessment of proficiency levels, for example the Threshold Level and the Niveau Seuil. Invitations were also extended to a small number of representatives from professional groups and federal agencies involved in research and development in FL learning and in FL teaching.

The proceedings of the Symposium, containing all the position papers, discussant reports, and summaries of discussions are now available. In this report, I will attempt to focus on the reservations expressed about the OPI and the Guidelines. I have selected four problem areas that were discussed at the Symposium: (1) the global nature of the OPI and related issues of validity, reliability, and fairness; (2) the view of communicative interaction inherent in the Guidelines; (3) the relationship between the OPI scales and the Guidelines and the nature of FL acquisition; (4) practical problems posed by the generalized use of the OPI. In the concluding section of this report I will mention some research directions identified at the Symposium.

ISSUES

1. The global nature of the OPI

For Lyle Bachman the central question in evaluating the OPI and the ACTFL-Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) guidelines is whether they constitute a valid measure of communicative language proficiency, defined as the ability to conduct culturally embedded verbal interaction with speakers of the target language community. He answered in the negative because he believes the OPI confounds the competence to be measured with the method of measurement. Developers of the OPI are confronted with a dilemma. They can aim for greater standardization and trade less content validity for more reliability of scoring; or they can expand the range of sample tasks and trade closer approximation to real linguistic interaction for reduced reliability.

Bachman views communicative language ability not as a holistic construct but one composed of three sets of constituent capabilities, each of which should be evaluated separately and each of which makes different predictions about an examinee's ability to perform specific communicative tasks. The Functional Trisection, which developers of the OPI view as its keystone, becomes for Bachman its chief liability, because the very use of the same performance sample to simultaneously evaluate content, function, and structural accuracy confuses test design with evaluation, content, and method. He also underscores the limited view of the nature of communicative proficiency reflected by evaluation guidelines that pay insufficient attention to pragmatic and sociolinguistic considerations. Instead he proposes a tripartite model in which linguistic structure, narrowly defined to encompass phonology, morphosyntax, and lexicon, forms only one of the four subcomponents of language competence. Bachman's scheme resembles the widely used Canale-Swain model in its stress on the rhetorical, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic features of interactive verbal communication. It differs, however, in that it isolates as a separate component control of motor skills, grouped under psychophysiological competence, and distinguishes more clearly between rules of language use, subsumed under pragmatic competence, and strategic competence. The latter identifies the ability to plan, execute, and assess socially embedded speech acts as a distinct and important part of communicative language ability.

The componential approach also characterizes the proficiency evaluation model devised specifically for Arabic and African languages by Patrick Bennett and Ann Bierstecker. As is the case with Bachman's proposal, this scheme places greater emphasis on pragmatic and sociocultural aspects of verbal interactions than does the OPI.

Looking at the OPI from a narrower psychometric perspective Elana Shohamy raised questions about its validity and reliability. She granted that with extensive and continuous training of raters, acceptable levels of interrater reliability may be attained. However, she listed other types of reliability to which developers of the OPI have not paid sufficient attention: test-retest reliability, parallel forms reliability, and interviewer reliability. Because the interviewer is an integral part of the test such factors as interviewer attitude, personality, and rapport with the individual being tested greatly influence results. Shohamy also stressed the narrow nature of the range of interactional competence tapped by the OPI, and she reported that a recent study she and her collaborators conducted showed only moderate correlations between four different types of verbal interactions: an interview, a role play, a reporting task, and a discussion. Observations such as these have led the Israel Ministry of Education to abandon an oral interview used for nearly 20 years in favor of a more varied scheme that samples verbal performance in the aforementioned four types of interaction. In addition, each part of the test is conducted by a different person.

Shohamy also mentions the need for applying criteria other than validity and reliability; utility, accuracy, feasibility, and fairness. For example, she points out that an important factor in the implementation of the OPI test is its positive backwash effect on instruction, particularly demands for higher levels of oral proficiency to be demonstrated by teachers and greater stress on the development of the oral skills. With respect to the criterion of fairness, which Shohamy defines as insuring that a test be conducted legally, ethically, and with regard to the welfare of the individuals tested as well as others affected by test results, failure to sufficiently take it into account holds great potential risks in our litigious society.

The potential legal problems raised by the use of the OPI for purposes of establishing degree requirements and for teacher certification is precisely the issue addressed by Sally Magnan in her contribution. Referring to recent court cases, she stressed

the need to establish the content and instructional validity of the test and its efficacy as a predictor of successful use of the target language and teaching competence. The link between proficiency in the language taught and pedagogical effectiveness will prove particularly difficult to establish in view of the multiplicity of objectives of general academic FL instruction and the vast array of knowledge and skills it demands on the part of teachers. Magnan cited the disquieting judicial precedent created by the 1979 case (*Armstead versus Starkville Municipal Separate School District*) in which the Graduate Record Examination was found unconstitutional as a criterion for the hiring and retention of high school teachers because its constituent tasks could not be proven to be directly related to good teaching. For these reasons, Magnan recommends that the use of the OPI or similar instruments for FL teacher certification should not be administered by degree granting institutions or employers of teachers but should be entrusted instead to professional teacher organizations.

John Clark and Ray Clifford outlined a program of research that would validate and provide a firmer empirical base for the OPI and the ACTFL-ILR guidelines. They admit that, paradoxically, the OPI falls considerably short as a face-and content-valid measure of communicative interaction. They suggest research involving the correlation of OPI scores with a wider variety of more face-and content-valid activities and with highly specific tasks in employment and language use settings. Clark and Clifford also granted that the developers of the OPI must resolve problems on intra- and interrater reliability, and they pointed out that another area that deserves research is that of the relative resistance of communicative ability to attrition.

2. The nature of communicative interaction

Even in their new revised form, the Guidelines stress structural accuracy and functional adequacy to the detriment of sociolinguistic and discourse competence. In response to Heide Byrnes' laudable attempt to incorporate these competencies in the OPI scales, Claire Kramsch identified three weaknesses that make the OPI a less than adequate measure of what she termed interactional competence and that doom to reductionism all attempts to broaden the scope of rater judgments. First, because of the interactional nature of communication, the rater, as a cooperative partner in the elicitation of ratable samples, introduces an uncontrollable variable. As Bachman pointed out

this results in a serious confounding of test content and test method. Second, basing the Guidelines on specific norms is incompatible with the evaluation of sociolinguistic competence which requires constant shifting of norms in reaction to the subtle changes in the social situation that inevitably occur during communicative interaction. Third, Kramsch pointed out the implicit sociocultural bias of a test that places a high premium on conversational management skills and decontextualized linguistic features associated with certain cultural levels and social groups. To eliminate these shortcomings, she suggested replacing the discrete behavioristic objectives, characteristic of traditional practice, with more abstract sociocultural constructs.

For Dale Lange one of the most serious problems for the implementation of the Guidelines is that level definitions related to the socio-cultural context are relegated to the upper end of the OPI scale. As Claire Kramsch (1986) has repeatedly stressed, genuine interactional competence, at any level, presupposes sociocultural knowledge.

Without it, students are at the mercy of content structure, of the words they hear or read, without being able to recognize either the personal intentions or the cultural assumptions behind the words (p. 368).

The adaptation of the OPI and the Guidelines to the assessment of proficiency in languages other than the commonly taught Western European languages (one of the topics discussed at the Symposium) has heightened our awareness of how cultural considerations powerfully determine the degree of acceptable sociolinguistic deviance in learners' interlanguage. Unlike the Western European languages in general, those of the Far East, for example, require speakers to constantly situate themselves socially and choose appropriate linguistic variants with respect to the status of their interlocutors. It is clear that for such languages suitable guidelines must incorporate statements about sociolinguistic competence at the lowest proficiency levels.

3. The relationship between the OPI scales and the Guidelines and the nature of FL learning

As Nina Garrett pointed out in her position paper on the role of grammar in the Proficiency Movement:

The Guidelines as rating level descriptions were originally developed on the basis of experiential data, reflecting the job-related requirements of the population

being tested, rather than on the basis of adult classroom second language acquisition theory or theoretically motivated empirical research.

She delineated two mutually exclusive positions concerning the place of grammar in the OPI and the Guidelines: (1) relative levels of grammatical accuracy and sequences for the use of specific grammatical features are determined on the basis of experiential evidence, in which case no independent validation (for example, on the basis of psycholinguistic evidence) is necessary; or (2) such independent validation is used to legitimize claims about the developmental order of grammatical features and specification of levels of accuracy. Like several other Symposium participants, notably Dan Douglas and Dale Lange, Nina Garrett stressed the priority of theory construction and testing in determining the role of linguistic features in the acquisition of functional skills. Douglas noted that, because of the complexity of verbal communication, it cannot be claimed that the mastery of any set of linguistic features corresponds to a given degree of communicative effectiveness.

Lange pointed out that a glaring flaw in the Guidelines is that their experiential base consists of observations of adult learners. Extrapolating from this base to classroom learning involving children, adolescents, and young adults entails the assumption that FL learning processes remain constant across these various groups. I might add that another weakness involves extrapolation from the specific-purpose instruction characteristic of the various government agencies concerned with FL training and the fundamental instruction that forms the bulk of school and university FL teaching.

John de Jong, representing the Dutch agency for educational testing (CITO), suggested that at lower levels of proficiency, learners are more dependent on structural features and that, consequently, at these levels tests might need to be criterion-referenced and discrete-point. More advanced learners have deficiencies, and their proficiency can be assessed on a single dimension. These facts would lead us to question whether an instrument originally devised by FSI for evaluating a relatively high level of proficiency (S-3 on the FSI scale and Superior on the ACTFL scale) should be the model for assessing the much lower levels of competence realistically attainable by academic learners.

Another moot issue in the evaluation of FL proficiency is the construct of educated native speaker (ENS) speech, which constitutes the implicit target norm in the ACTFL Guidelines and the explicit one for the ILR version. In my own position paper, I argued that in classroom FL instruction, such a target is too restrictive, and I provided as an alternative a multi-target model of language variation according to which native speakers differ with respect to a variety of norms and the degree to which they are influenced by shared norms in particular social contexts. According to that model the speech of native speakers also varies with regard to relative planning in response to another set of social and contextual factors. I suggested that the special social context represented by the FL classroom warrants the establishment of special pedagogical norms. Because it involves the presentation in pedagogical materials of sociolinguistically stigmatized features, the notion of pedagogical norm raises the thorny issue of accuracy and fossilization. Sociolinguistic deviance is unavoidable in early-level interlanguage; even speech targeted on ENSs may be deviant in certain social contexts. The issue of the terminal 2+, around with discussions about the importance of grammatical accuracy have turned, will generate more heat than light until a solid body of empirical observations can be adduced in support of the claim that allowing learners to produce communicatively adequate but structurally deviant utterances inevitably leads to fossilization. Perhaps fossilization can be reduced by a better match between communicative demands and linguistic means available to learners. But instead of reducing functional demands in the interest of more accurate grammatical expression I suggested that, whenever possible, the level of grammatical complexity be adjusted to the learners' limited competence.

4. Administrative and practical problems

The implementation of a national metric for the assessment of functional ability in FLs poses numerous administrative and budgetary problems. Few institutions of higher learning, and even fewer school systems, are equipped to administer a resource-intensive test of functional ability. What is the most efficient administrative structure for training qualified testers and validating training of individual teachers? Of course, the answers will vary depending on the number of learners of a given language. Whereas there are tens of thousands of learners of

French, German and Spanish, only a few dozen persons each year attempt to acquire a functional ability in such languages as Dutch, Haitian Creole, or Indonesian.

Another set of questions that must be answered concerns the various uses of national metric. At what levels of study (beginning, intermediate, advanced) should learners be administered resource-intensive tests and for what skills? Should a national metric be used for validation of foreign language study at the secondary school level? For placement in university courses? For university language requirements? For certification of language majors or prospective secondary school teachers? For admission to specialized graduate school programs?

More than five years after its introduction at the high school and university level the OPI is still not widely used. The somewhat trial nature of the test results in large part from the immense logistic and financial problems posed by its widespread and massive use. Nonetheless two noteworthy attempts have been made to assess FL learning by the use of proficiency tests. An important part of the Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency were progress reports of the attempts to institute language proficiency requirements at the University of Pennsylvania and at the University of Minnesota.

Barbara Freed described the University of Pennsylvania's pioneering adaptation in 1981 of a variant of the FSI test and ILR guidelines as a proficiency-based exit requirement in fourth-semester FL courses. The initiative required a two-year preparatory period during which administrative procedures were revised, student fears allayed, suitable instruments implemented, and appropriate cut-off levels determined. Although the introduction of proficiency-based exit requirements have not led to a demonstrable improvement in student performance after two years of study, it has invigorated the FL programs and markedly improved articulation between lower-division courses by providing long-term objectives independent of specific course content. Most importantly, it has shown that an evaluation instrument such as the OPI that makes special demands for staff and time and training and that induces considerable student anxiety can indeed be integrated into the curriculum of mid-size university programs.

As was the case with the University of Pennsylvania program, the University of Minnesota initiative described by Dale Lange was motivated by an educational policy decision to defined achievement in FL study in terms of demonstrable proficiency

rather than time spent in study. The Minnesota program is a bolder experiment because it involves a redefinition of both entrance and graduation requirements in proficiency terms. A typical midwestern state university, Minnesota has larger lower-division FL programs than those of private institutions like the University of Pennsylvania. Also, changes in the entrance requirements of public universities necessarily have a backwash effect on local high school graduation requirements, and they require close coordination between administrators and teachers at both levels. These differences are reflected in the form of the test itself and also in the guidelines that underlie the proficiency ratings and the levels of minimal performance. As was the case for Barbara Freed, Dale Lange did not adopt the ACTFL Guidelines unquestioningly. On the contrary, he underscored some of their shortcomings, particularly for the reading requirement, and he recommended continued validation and revision. He concluded with a thorough and candid analysis of the problems that the implementation of any integrated proficiency-based FL program faces given the many inadequacies of prevalent teacher training, curriculum and syllabus design, materials development, and, most importantly, administrative practices in major university FL programs.

The exit proficiency levels set at the University of Pennsylvania and at the University of Minnesota lead one to question the emphasis that the Proficiency Movement places on developing a national metric for the assessment of oral interaction skills for what I have termed basic, fundamental FL instruction. At both institutions, the oral proficiency level is fixed at the Intermediate Mid level which is defined in the old Generic Guidelines as the ability to satisfy most survival needs and limited social demands in a manner that is intelligible to native speakers used to dealing with foreigners (the revised 1986 Guidelines are counted in somewhat different terms: the ability to handle successfully a variety of uncomplicated, basic and communicative tasks and social situations and to be understood by sympathetic interlocutors). At the University of Minnesota entrance oral proficiency levels are set at the Novice High level which is defined in the 1986 Generic Guidelines as the ability to satisfy partially the requirements of basic communicative exchanges by relying heavily on learned utterances but occasionally expanding these through simple recombination of their elements. Learners at the Novice High level will have difficulty being understood even

by sympathetic interlocutors. It is legitimate to ask what educational purpose is served by a test designed to measure levels of attainment so low as to pose acute problems of reliability and, ultimately, of fairness.

The gain in oral interactive proficiency between entrance and exit that the University of Minnesota testing program attempts to measure is relatively meager. Such a testing program could meet the criterion of fairness only if it could be demonstrated that the assessment met high standards of reliability. However Barbara Freed pointed out that, although the Pennsylvania proficiency test adheres to the guidelines and format of the OPI, it is administered and scored by teaching assistants who generally have not undergone the rigorous training required for ACTFL certification. Because the University of Minnesota oral proficiency tests need to be administered to hundreds of students, it takes the form of the ROPE (Recorded Oral Proficiency Examination) rather than the standard OPI. Although it is evaluated in terms of the ILR guidelines, the ROPE (Lowe & Clifford) uses a stimulus audiotape on which conversational questions of increasing complexity and sophistication are asked by a native speaker. As is the case at the University of Pennsylvania, the scoring is handled by relatively untrained graduate teaching assistants, rather than by certified teachers.

Protase Woodford emphasized the need for compromise in the generalization of a common metric. He pointed out that the University of Pennsylvania's pioneering initiative required setting standards below those needed for students to reach the functional objectives selected. For instance, attainment of the Advanced level in reading would scarcely be sufficient for the analysis of a piece of literature. He suggested the elaboration of two sets of scales. One set would provide teachers with detailed information for diagnostic purposes; a second set, couched in more general performance objectives, would be addressed to users.

John Clark and Ray Clifford mentioned attempts by government agencies to develop variants of the OPI that are less onerous to administer and that measure linguistic skills other than interactional ability.

CONCLUSION

Without denigrating the considerable accomplishments resulting from the various initiatives undertaken by ACTFL, it is fair to say that much remains to be done before the FL teaching profession has at its disposal a common metric to measure proficiency in the functional use of language in its various modalities that meets generally recognized canons of face validity, reliability, fairness and which, at the same time, is relatively easy and economical to administer on a larger scale. Even more remains to be done before we can substantiate any claims about direct links between the attainment of various levels of proficiency and stages in second languages development, on the one hand, or between specific levels of proficiency and inventories of discrete linguistic, discourse, or sociolinguistic features that need to be mastered, on the other hand.

In his perceptive synthesis of the Symposium G. Richard Tucker remarked that much of the controversy surrounding the adaptation of the ACTFL Guidelines and the OPI to what I have termed the fundamental FL teaching programs of high schools and universities (the teaching of FL as part of a liberal education) is attributable to an attempt to meet a variety of incompatible objectives and to please a disparate clientele. He felt that progress in the development of more valid and reliable testing procedures required collaborative work in three areas. First, operational definitions of basic terms such as "fluency," "accuracy," and even "proficiency" need to be developed. Indeed, Pardee Lowe considered this to be the most important challenge that the FL teaching profession must take on. Without precision and common agreement in the use of basic terms, exchange of information and constructive discussion are high impossible. Second, a proactive research program for the validation of the OPI and the Guidelines patterned on that which has accompanied the development and the refinement of the TOEFL test needs to be instituted. I have indicated some suggested topics for a vigorous program of research and development earlier in this program of research and development earlier in this report, but let me mention several others: (1) comparing the scores of various proficiency tests with actual performance in real world language use tasks; (2) submitting proficiency test scores to secondary analysis, for example, having academic testers score tests rated by government agencies raters and vice-versa; (3)

determining to what extent the ability to make reliable OPI ratings remains constant over time and examining the relative resistance of various types of linguistic features to attrition and language loss; and (4) exploring which linguistic features are more likely to trigger stereotypic reactions on the part of native speakers or those who use test results. Finally, Tucker made a plea for wider sharing of information, not only within this country but on an international basis.

At the symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency, a number of concerns about the direction taken by the development of the OPI surfaced. The Proficiency Movement is still in its incipient stage. Given many of the gaps in our understanding of the nature of FL proficiency and of processes of FL learning, it seems hazardous to continue to focus on stressing the evaluation of communicative interaction. It is also risky to invest in developing the OPI to measure low-levels of proficiency. The amount of interactional skills that can be developed in our short high school language sequences or in elementary and intermediate university courses is too small and to evanescent. It would be naive to assume that when they discover that the typical four year high school FL program will only develop the ability to meet survival needs and limited social demands, students and administrators will clamor for longer periods of study that can guarantee meaningful communicative ability. On the contrary, such a realization may erase current positive attitudes toward FL study or lead to a backlash against emphasis on oral skills, such as listening comprehension and reading, where more significant results can be shown after modest periods of study. Also, these skills are more robust and less likely to be eroded than communicative ability. Speaking proficiency could be evaluated by the various types of semidirect procedures described by John Clark and Ray Clifford, and the evaluation should serve mainly diagnostic purposes.

More importantly, the limited means at our disposal should be marshalled for the development of valid and reliable tests for the evaluation of students who are learning FL's for specific purposes; undergraduate language majors, graduate students, and prospective teachers. Early indications of foreign language education majors revealed that nearly half of those tested ranged from Intermediate High to Novice High on the ACTFL scale or 1+ to 0+ on the FSI scale. Alas, we must assume that this shocking state of affairs may not have improved appreciably. Our first

priority must be the development of proficiency tests which specialists in testing and second language learning believe to be sufficiently valid, reliable, and fair to be made an integral part of the training of our FL specialists, including those entrusted with the teaching of FL's as a fundamental part of a general education.

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NOTES

1. The following position papers were presented (discussant names are listed (in parenthesis) after each paper): John L.D. Clark, Ray T. Clifford, "The FSI/ILR/ACTFL Proficiency Scales and Testing Techniques: Development, Current Status, and Needed Research;" Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro, "The ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines: An Update;" Lyle F. Bachman, "Problems in Examining the Validity of the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview," (Sally Magnan, Elana Shohamy); David Hipple, "The Extension of Language Proficiency Guidelines and Oral Proficiency Testing to the Less Commonly Taught Languages," (Ron Walton, Sally S. Magnan, Patrick Bennett, Erenest N. McCarus, Jos Nivette, David Singleton, Irene Thompson, John U. Wolff); Dan Douglas, "Testing Listening Comprehension in the Context of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines," (John H.A.L. de John, Harry L. Gradman); Albert Valdman, "The Problem of the Target Model in Proficiency-Oriented Foreign Language Instruction," (Pardee Lowe, Jr., John U. Wolff); Heidi Byrnes, "Features of Pragmatic and Sociolinguistic Competence in the Oral Proficiency Interview," (Dell Hymes, Clarie Kramsch); Nina Garrett, "The Role of Grammar in the Development of Communicative Ability," (Simon Belasco, Theodore V. Higgs); Susan M. Gass, "L2 Vocabulary Acquisition," (James R. Child, Sharon Lapkin, Susanne Carroll); Barbara F. Freed, "Issues in Establishing and Maintaining a Language Proficiency Requirement;" Dale L. Lange, "Developing and Implementing Proficiency Oriented Tests for a New Language Requirement at the University of Minnesota: Issues and Problems for Implementing the ACTFL/ETS/ILR Proficiency Guidelines," (Robert C. Lafayette, Sandra Savignon, Protase Woodford); G. Richard Tucker, "Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency: Synthesis."

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USING AUTHENTIC MATERIALS TO DEVELOP FUNCTIONAL PROFICIENCY IN WRITING

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INTRODUCTION

Never before in the history of foreign language education has there been a better time to preach and teach the gospel of functional and authentic writing in an interdependent fashion that does not artificially separate it from the skills of speaking, listening, reading, and from culture. Indeed, writing for proficiency has sparked such a national interest in the teaching of writing across the curriculum that it continues to be the subject of much discussion in our profession today. This paper proposes to establish a theoretical framework for an integrated writing plan and offer concrete suggestions and applications around which proficiency-based writing activities can be designed, developed, and implemented.

SOME THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR A WRITING PLAN

As one reads the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (1985) for writing, it becomes clear that writing is not . . .

- * the forgotten fourth skill.
- * just taking pen in hand and putting it to paper.
- * a "composition" class.
- * compulsory muscle-flexing exercise of "writing things down."
- * homework exercises, quizzes, boardwork, reports, or essays on "My Summer Vacation."
- * practicing spelling, new verb forms, and vocabulary words.
- * mere transcription of speech.

- * a passive skill or a by-product of other skills.
- * a mass of red ink and a hard-to-explain grade.

Conversely, it is most definitively . . .

- * a natural, self-directed and highly individual activity.
- * a form of learning.
- * a mental and physical activity.
- * a rewarding risk-taking task.
- * a problem-solving activity.
- * a support skill for speaking, listening, and reading.
- * a means of real communication, isolated in place and time.
- * a slow and very often painful process to master.
- * a discourse with specific rhetorical strategies, qualities, and conventions.
- * a communication tool that not only reinforces other skills but also enhances the internalization of the target language and culture as well.
- * a more accurate, complete, and less redundant skill than speech.
- * a way of giving life to a once lifeless blank paper.

In summary, understanding that writing as a mode of expression is a support skill as well as a highly communicative act that accomplishes various expressive communicative purposes will help us structure, sequence, and choose activities that reflect the same natural and authentic purposes for which writing is actually used by the native speakers of the language within their own contexts. To meet this challenge, students and teachers of second or foreign languages must understand the reasons why we write in real life. Knowing why we write will help us identify, spiral, and progressively expand the functions needed to ascend from lower to higher levels of proficiency. This, in turn, enables us to inform, narrate, describe, persuade, question, promise, apologize, complain, express feelings and attitudes, preferences and concrete experiences, discuss ideas, and support points of view, and the like.

The ACTFL Guidelines for writing identify the multiple functions students are able to perform at each proficiency level, as well as the topics and situations in which they can carry out these functions, and the degree of accuracy with which students compose their thoughts coherently. Beyond that, this set of

guidelines also indicates that students at the lower levels of proficiency operate primarily with memorized material (learned words, phrases, lists, single syntactic frames, etc.) and show little evidence of creating with the language. Their level is one of a word-or sentence-level performance, whereas the advanced and superior students operate cohesively and coherently on the paragraph-length level, clearly create with language, and express themselves freely and lucidly.

To be compatible with a proficiency orientation, it becomes necessary to follow a spiral continuum or progression of writing exercises. Students should be provided with authentic writing tasks tailored to their current proficiency level. This is not to say that dictations, transcriptions, manipulative exercises, lists, guided and/or free compositions, and the like are no longer of service in our foreign language classrooms. It merely capitalizes upon the need to choose writing activities that reflect functional and authentic use of the language (Magnan, 1985).

What do we as teachers of second or foreign languages need to consider before we ask students to engage in any writing activity? First of all, for any activity to be oriented towards proficiency, three key concerns need to be addressed:

1. Are the writing activities authentic and keyed to the multiplicity of students' affective-cognitive needs, interests, abilities, ages, and styles of learning?
2. Do the writing activities we ask students to perform contribute to the development of communicative, and linguistic proficiency within a cultural context?
3. Will the group size affect students' language-use opportunities for purposeful functional and authentic interaction?

Only after having answered the above questions can we proceed to consider such issues as.

* the teaching of the cognitive processes, including but not limited to, organization, elaboration, definition, generalization, argumentation, explanation, awareness of the audience, comparison and contrast, and the like.

* the introduction of discourse features that reflect conventions of writing in the culture (e.g. connectors, spelling, qualifiers, punctuation, capitalization, abbreviations, clear and complete

information, elaboration and detail, organization, formalization of style and tone, accuracy, precise word, syntactic structures, and so on) to achieve a discourse beyond the paragraph level that is natural, cohesive and coherent.

* the composing process of writing as a) planning, b) rescanning, and c) revising (see Krashen, 1984, pp. 17-18).

Beyond that, teachers at all levels need to be aware that writing assignments.

* will become even more meaningful and purposeful, both for students and teachers alike, if they grow out of need.

* should move from lists through descriptions and narration to hypothesizing and logical coherent paragraphs and discourse.

* should be challenging, interesting, and practical in nature.

* should increase in range and difficulty as students ascend from lower to higher levels of proficiency.

* must go beyond linguistic manipulation to develop flexibility, creativity, and authenticity in the target language.

Because writing is a much different channel of delivery than speech and because writing does not develop as naturally as speech, it is obvious that the old saying "If you can say it, you can write it" is not valid. Writing requires clearer and more complete information, elaboration, better organization, and accuracy (Rivers, 1975). Students' control of grammatical/syntactical structures, instructional/communicative contents, and socio-cultural/interactional contexts need to be given primary consideration. Only then can they be expected to move from conceptual through partial to full performance control in writing at each proficiency level. Said another way, the audience for and the purpose of writing must be made clear to the students just as the topics need to be carefully sequenced so that they can first recognize the functions of writing, then manipulate them mechanically, and finally produce them on paper naturally for purposes of communication.

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS FOR THE PRACTICAL-MINDED

Because this paper is meant to be a practical one, some specific suggestions need to be presented first, before discussing the design, development and implementation of writing activities at various levels of proficiency:

1. Set the parameters of the writing activity. Asking students to write about what they did over the weekend is more demanding and confusing in nature than writing about how they spent their Saturday afternoon.
2. Select a topic appropriate to the linguistic level of the students. Don't expect them to narrate and describe if they cannot yet make or put together a grocery list.
3. From the very beginning of instruction teach the process of writing, i.e., the way the language operates in the target culture with respect to organizing, focusing, logical sequencing, style, and tone of discourse. Do not merely expose students to the conventions of the written code of the target language.
4. Have students write a series of drafts thus enabling them to receive adequate feedback (from peers or teachers) concerning content, organization of ideas, amount of detail, accuracy, etc. If possible, use anonymous writing samples from other classes to minimize the level of self-consciousness of the individual writer/ reader while maximizing the level of a cooperative, anxiety-free writing environment among students.
5. Have students engage in various authentic language-use writing activities that require some of them to list, others to narrate and describe, some to take notes, and others to summarize.
6. Provide students with as much authentic reader response as possible. Why? Because outside the four walls of the classroom, we always write for a reason, and there is always a real-life receiver, even oneself.
7. Go from global to specific and from the known to the unknown, similar to the process of listening and reading.
8. Provide a setting for the writing assignment for two reasons:
a) it creates in the students' minds a schema that enables

them to assimilate and/or accommodate more efficiently the new knowledge/material to existing cognitive structures, and b) it makes the task even more meaningful and authentic in the eyes of the students.

SAMPLE ACTIVITIES

The next step in organizing proficiency-based writing activities should be to devise, adapt, or select culturally authentic materials that reflect a proficiency orientation and combine them with writing tasks that are both entertaining and challenging. The professional literature on writing for proficiency suggests various ways for using authentic materials as cultural resources for enhancing students' receptive or productive skills (Rings, 1986; Weisenrieder, 1987; Rogers and Medley, 1988). Although realia from the target culture are of great benefit to language learners, it cannot be emphasized too strongly that it is not the content or form of the authentic materials that determine the difficulty of the materials, but the tasks we ask students to perform based on those authentic language samples.

The following activities, demonstrate how writing as a vital skill to effective communication can be introduced and practiced with the other skills in an interdependent fashion. Since skills do not develop in isolation nor apart from each other, so should they not be divorced from the context and cultural framework in which they are embedded.

"Ein Bild sagt mehr als tausend Worte":
 ["A picture is worth a thousand words"]
 Anlegen eines Familienalbums
 [Building a family album]

- | | |
|-----------|---|
| Purpose | To combine the skills of listening and speaking with writing in a highly interesting and challenging authentic task that enables students to use descriptive and narrative language within past and present time frames |
| Content | Family members and biographical information |
| Functions | Asking for and supplying biographical information; identifying and labelling pictures; describing |

people, places and times; narrating events in paragraph form

Management

- A. Have students bring to class pictures of themselves with family and friends. Compile pictures into sets.
- B. Give each student a set of pictures other than their own.
- C. Have students interview the owners of the pictures while taking notes.
- D. Using their notes as an aid, have students transcribe the interview.
- E. Have students present the interview to the class.

Ich entwerfe mein eigne Autogrammkarte
[I propose my own autobiographical sketch]

Purpose To move students from "Me Jane, You Tarzan" responses to extended discourse

Content Biographical and personal information

Functions Supplying personal biographical information on forms; writing resumes with some detail in past, present, and future time frames

Management

- A. Have students, either individually or as a group, read a number of Autogrammkarten [autobiographical sketches] of celebrities in order; for them to become familiar with the vocabulary, format, style, and content.
- B. Supply students with an Autogrammkarte form and have them fill in the appropriate information. Also, students can fill in additional information which they may feel is lacking from the form such as occupation, nationality, hobbies, weight, personality, etc.

- C. As a preparation for Advanced-Level writing, have students write a short description of their "Werdegang," or in other words, a short biographical sketch up to the present.
- D. Next, having successfully completed the above step, have each student write a cover letter to the editor of a magazine explaining why the editor ought to publish the student's Autogrammkarte.

Sprich Dich aus . . .
[Speak out . . .]

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| Purpose | To give students a sense of accomplishment by practicing various functions of authentic-language use and by blending and synthesizing the mental-physical activity of writing with listening speaking, and reading tasks |
| Content | Concrete topics relating to personal needs and interests |
| Functions | Creating with the language; leaving messages on the answering machine; writing limited formal correspondence in paragraph form; explaining point of view with some detail; thanking and complaining |

Management

- A. Present the students with the following context:
"Something is troubling you, for example: you had a family fight, you are quarreling with your boyfriend/girlfriend, you were caught cheating, you need an operation, etc. While you were reading a magazine, you came across the feature "Sprich Dich aus . . ." You have a choice to either call or write.
When you call the line is busy. On your second call you get a recording.
1. Leave your name, the time of your call, a brief summary of the reason for your call, your

phone number, and what days and times you can be reached at home.

2. You have been waiting for the return call for a week now, and there is still no answer from the editor.

Your problem still exists, so you decide to write. Explain in detail what your problem is, the cause of your problem, how upset you are, and ask for advice.

3. You have received the editor's advice and followed it to the letter.

Now, write the editor, either

a) A thank-you note because things worked out so well, or

b) A note of complaint because the suggestions back-fired and made your problem even worse.

Mir liegt etwas auf dem Herzen

[Something's on my mind]

Purpose To help students become more aware and critical of their own writing strategies and capabilities while engaging in a more complex simulated authentic task that requires the use of their expressive writing expertise such as organization, elaboration, argumentation, appropriate style and code, elements of cohesion and coherence in their discourse, and the like

Content Everyday events and preferences

Functions Writing formal correspondence; explaining, suggesting, instructing, thanking, and comparing

Management

A. You watched a show on TV that included controversial issues which offended you. Write a letter to the network or the sponsors of the show stating that.

1. you will no longer buy the products that sponsor such programs.

2. they should remove such offensive material from public TV.
 3. they should air such programs in a later time slot.
 4. if they do not stop broadcasting such programs, you will organize a letter-writing campaign to persuade Congress to establish a federal code for network broadcasting.
- B. You switch channels. For weeks now you have been watching quality shows. Write a letter to the network and inform them that.
1. they should continue airing such shows.
 2. they should include more of this quality programming.
 3. their shows exercise the First Amendment right of freedom of speech.
 4. their shows gave rise to a very stimulating and long-lasting discussion with your family/friends.
 5. most of their shows, although controversial in content, have been presented in an objective manner, treating both sides fairly.

Wie es uns gefällt?

[How it appeals to us]

Purpose	To accelerate the rate of change in the students' language attitude from one of "writeophobia" to functional and authentic writing that goes beyond the four walls of the classroom while generating their own motivation to learn by minimizing performance anxiety during learning
Content	Clothing, colors, preferences, and concrete topics relating to personal interests
Functions	Listing, identifying, and labelling clothing and pictures with descriptions and vice versa; writing short paragraphs about oneself; explaining and justifying personal selections

Management

- A. Review clothing vocabulary with students.
- B. Have students bring to class full-size pictures of themselves which they feel best express their personalities.
- C. Have students write a short paragraph explaining why these particular clothes best exemplify themselves.
- D. Collect all writings, mix, and line them up at random.
Have students match one or more written descriptions with only one picture and justify orally their selections. At no time, however, should students reveal their own writings.

Traummadchen -- Madchentraum
[Dream Girl -- Girl Dream]

- | | |
|------------|---|
| Purpose | To make the reading of authentic texts fun and meaningful to students by asking them to engage in functions that are common in the target-language community |
| Content | Personal interests within the scope of very limited language experience |
| Functions | Supplying personal information; writing short descriptions; following directions as depicted from text; writing a short letter to the company that is promoting the contest |
| Management | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> A. Show on the overhead projector the text with only its heading, picture, and accompanying personal information. Cover the rest of the text and have students anticipate and/or predict based on the information available what the text is all about. B. If students have not yet guessed the word game <u>Madchentraum-Traummadchen</u>, have them skim and/or scan the entire text for global comprehension again. |

- C. Based on their reading, have students write down in a numerical order all the directions they need to follow. For example:

I must
Ich muB . . .

1. . . . Fotomodell/Dressman werden.
 [become a model/mannequin]
2. . . . mich schminken
 [put on makeup]
3. . . . mich fotografieren(lassen)
 [have my picture taken]
4. . . . zwei Fotos (vor und nach der Verwandlung) und einen kurzen Text an die Redaktion schicken.
 [send two photos (before and after the transformation) and a short text to the editorial office]
5. EinssendenschluB ist . . .
 [the conclusion is . . .]
6. Die Anschrift ist . . .
 [the address is . . .]

(Higher-Level students should also include an accompanying letter to the company)

- D. Divide the class into two major groups. All females play Fotomodell [photomodel], all males Dressman [mannequin]. Give students a specific number of days to complete the assignment.
- E. Have students bring to the classroom the two pictures and present them to the rest of the class by sharing with the others their feelings after they became Traummadchen [Dream Girl] or Dressman [mannequin].
- F. Reward the best work and have it published in your school's newspaper.

Beyond the reading

- A. Divide the class into groups of five and give them a set of pictures to judge. They have to judge on personality, hair, style, clothes, color,

and overall photogenic appearance.

- B. Each group selects a first, second, and third place picture. The representatives of each group meet in front of the whole class and decide on a final first, second, and third place picture among the top three selections of the individual groups.

CONCLUSION

Although the writing activities presented here were generated for students of German, foreign language practitioners at the secondary or college level will see that they are easily adapted to other modern languages, including English as a second language. The author's experiences in utilizing these classroom-tested activities have consistently underlined their success in increasing, challenging, and stimulating students' creativity, intelligence, and keen writing interests.

This paper has attempted to address and define writing as a thinking process that needs to be introduced and practiced early in the language course. It has also shown how using realia from the target culture can be accessed and adapted to the learner's immediate environment and everyday tasks. Further, because writing is not only a support skill for speaking, listening, and reading but an advanced art as well, it is of great importance that we first teach the process and principles of writing as a holistic construct within a larger discourse context (content level) with rules and conventions to be followed before teaching the individual discourse skills of writing (surface level). Expressed differently, teaching the process and principles of expressive writing is more vital and realistic than spoonfeeding students a myriad of writing skills in isolation.

Whatever the individual approach, one should strive at all times to fill the gap between the surface and the content level and to provide students with ample opportunities to move from the word through the sentence to well-organized cohesive and coherent paragraph length discourse. Taking proficiency in writing for granted or just preaching the gospel of autonomous and expressive writing without ever getting around to teaching the process of it, all the while hoping that through some miracle proficient writers will emerge, is too simplistic. Furthermore, it is pedagogically unsound and cannot be acceptable in the decades

ahead. We simply must do better. As we look toward the writing needs of the '90s, new and refined writing activities that exemplify more closely natural and authentic communication should be gathered and implemented in language programs that are sensitive to the needs and interests of both students and teachers of foreign and second languages.

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LOOSENING THE LEASH ON WRITING: THE ADULT LANGUAGE LEARNER

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INTRODUCTION

As the goals of foreign language teaching and learning place greater emphasis on using the language for real communication, it becomes increasingly important to "loosen the leash" on beginning level writing tasks commonly included in FL methodology texts and articles. Most experienced teachers can provide numerous (and humorous) examples resulting from the attempts of beginning students to express themselves in writing. The abundance of errors produced by these novice FL learners often leads us to the conclusion that one should permit students to write only what they can already speak and even then only in carefully controlled patterns (Pincas, 1962; Rivers, 1968). The question at the heart of this discussion is whether or not under certain conditions there is cause or compensating reasons that would justify entry into writing, and, if so, how should these initial writing tasks be structured.

The decision by this writer to loosen the leash developed in an attempt to sustain student motivation in adult education German classes by applying findings from recent research in both adult education theory and writing workshop strategies. Annually over a ten year period groups of students ranging in age from 23 to 80 have responded to this instructor's query about their goals for the course, and have emphasized that they want to learn to speak and understand. In addition, many express strong desires to write on a variety of topics and in paragraph length discourse. Rarely do we encounter such clearly stated and largely unsolicited requests in classes of pre-adults and adolescents: Troyanovich (31) must have had the latter in mind when writing, "most second-language students have neither the psychological nor the practical need to learn to write the foreign language." (p. 435) In fact, adult learners tend to have different reasons for

studying another language, as well as different learning strategies. Through an examination of the literature on adult learning orientations as well as through our own observations we can learn to adapt our teaching style to respond to these adult needs.

TOWARD AN UNDERSTANDING OF ADULT LEARNERS

The precepts of andragogical theory (the study of teaching to adults) introduced by Knowles (1970) in the early seventies, have been undergoing debate, refining and field-testing since that time. (Conti, 1985; Davenport, 1987; Even, 1987; Galbraith, 1989; Podeschi, 1987). Pedagogy, the term we traditionally use to refer to the science of teaching, is oriented specifically toward theories of how children learn and has resulted in methodologies of how all learners, children and adults alike, should be taught. The works of Knowles and others, based on findings that adults learn differently, suggest persuasively that teachers of adults must rethink the methods and strategies used with these more mature individuals. Andragogical concerns, steeped in studies of adult psychology, rely on models of adult maturational and developmental theory. Knowles synthesizes the research and presents several characteristics of adult learners' maturational progression.

1. Their self-concept moves from one of being dependent toward one of being self-directing.
2. They accumulate a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource for learning.
3. Their time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application. Accordingly, their orientation toward learning shifts from one of subject-centeredness to one of problem-centeredness.

Corresponding implications for course planning and teaching method would demand of instructors of adults that they:

1. Include adult students in a mutual process of formulating learning objectives and in the designing of learning experiences;
2. Help students exploit their own experiences as resources for learning so that the learning process is related to and makes use of their knowledge;
3. Help students apply new learning to their experience.

Equipped with an understanding of these basic concepts of adult psychology, the FL instructor is more likely to be better able to cope with the challenges encountered in the beginning FL class.

First, beginning adult FL learners face the potential problem of infantilization. Our students are at the distinct risk of sounding--or at the least of fearing they will sound--like toddlers. Most teachers have ways of trying to compensate for this implicit handicap. For adult learners, the problem is intensified. As described by Levinson (1976), the drive to achieve the ego ideal--our picture of how we should be at our ideal best--is the most powerful motivating factor in adults. A critical element in the adult personality is the desire to see the self as competent and effective in doing well what one does. In contrast to children--dependent beings for whom education is a process of accumulating a reservoir of knowledge and skills to be used later in life--adults view themselves as producers, doers, managers of their own lives. Thus education involves immediacy of application toward problem solving (Knowles, 1970, p. 48). Furthermore, because adults define themselves by their experience, they have a deep investment in the experience itself. If put in a situation in which their experience is not being used, or its worth is minimized, adults feel rejected as persons.

Application of these concepts in the classroom necessitates providing adults with ways to apply new ideas to their experiences, to apply new skills and knowledge immediately, and to manage their learning in the collaborative mode whereby "authority for curriculum formation is jointly shared by the learner and the practitioner" (Conti, 1985, p. 7). Not to provide for these special needs of adults, not to adapt to adult learning orientations, is to intensify the infantilization already inherent in the language taught in the beginning FL classes and thereby to increase anxiety and frustration.

THE CASE FOR WRITING

One readily available means by which adults can apply language skills and knowledge and gain a sense of mastery over application of subject matter is to do with it what they have done experientially with the native language--listen, speak, read, and also write. When adult learners indicate that developing skill in writing is a goal or a desired component of the course, the instructor will want to be able to accommodate the learner

confidently and in good conscience. If teachers fail to understand and acknowledge the extent to which adults must be treated as adults, the consequences are often resentment and withdrawal from continued learning. Unfortunately, the traditional education model has too often failed to help adults achieve their ego ideals and thereby has discouraged motivation to learn (Levinson, 1976). Although many variables may play a role in the high numbers of students who do not continue in the study of a foreign language after the first year, course design and response to student learning objectives is most certainly an important factor.

Once the decision is made to accommodate those adults for whom learning to write in the second language is a goal, teachers need to become versed in the most productive means of facilitating that goal. Modeling strategies used in English writing workshops can serve to establish a climate conducive to writing and can provide techniques for minimizing the likelihood of our students incorporating so many linguistic monstrosities into their creative writing projects.

GETTING STARTED

Some of the pre-writing invention techniques used in writing workshops lend themselves naturally to the beginning FL classroom, notably list-making and oral brainstorming. A number of excellent works and articles have appeared recently which advocate and describe these techniques (Collins, 1985; Colman, 1977; Cooper, 1988; Guadiani, 1981; Hewins, 1986; McGrath, 1988; Peterson, 1985; Spack, 1984). Since these techniques are designed for in-class use, they work particularly well in the FL classroom, strengthening the facilitative and corrective role of the instructor. It should be noted that in the adult classroom these techniques serve more to help structure ideas and to reinforce and expand vocabulary than to motivate students toward arriving at or developing content ideas on a topic. Adults who are already rather highly motivated have a clearly recognized experience bank on which to draw, and view their writing as solving the problem of how to express thoughts efficiently and correctly in the FL. Quickly engaged in putting pen to paper, they pose the challenge to the instructor of how to facilitate most effectively the correct expression of ideas.

CONFERENCING

Beyond the stage of invention, correction and revision become the focus for beginning adult FL learners. In-class writing tasks and assignments free the instructor to circulate around the room, skim over students' work in progress and ask questions. The questions asked in writing workshops for native speakers typically relate to points that need to be clarified, the need for support of an idea, or for restructuring or transitioning. Circulating time in the beginning FL classroom is devoted to much more concrete issues. Our interest here lies not with the perfectly structured, unified and substantiated essay, but rather with ways to engage students in re-composing ideas that have resulted in poor self-expression or non-communication. With the assistance of the teacher, students can become more adept at unraveling thoughts embedded in an English-induced construction and rephrasing those thoughts using the grammatical structures and discourse markers that they already control or that they are learning to use. Just what do we do when we encounter a sentence such as, "Ich fahre nach Worcester fur Schule"? By pointing out to the students that the phrase is unacceptable in German and asking them to draw out the thought to express as concretely as possible the meaning intended, they will usually arrive at an appropriate construction, as this student did in "Ich fahre nach Worcester, wo die Uni ist."

As Krashen (1984) points out research suggests that feedback is most useful when given during the writing process rather than upon completion. Moreover, the involvement of the instructor during the composing process allows for a high degree of individualization. This takes place in short, spontaneous "conferences" between teacher and student. Meeting individual needs is by far one of the most appealing features of conferencing. The individualized moment allows the one student to benefit from a brief drill or alternative explanation of a concept already covered but evidently not understood or integrated, while it might provide the more linguistically adept student the opportunity to learn a new grammatical construct or, at the least, to be referred to the textbook explanation, thereby accelerating language acquisition and proficiency. How we approach the problem in "Es ist eine Woche seit bin ich hier gewesen," whether in conferencing or in written correction (see focus correction below) depends both on material covered to date and on the

individual's ability. In this particular case (two months into the year) adverbial clauses had not yet been introduced. The more adept student can be shown that "since" as a subordinating conjunction ("seitdem") differs in German from "since" ("seit") as a preposition. The student can then be referred to the explanation of subordination in the test. Or, one might say simply that "seit" as a preposition can be used before an object of time to express duration, as in "seit einer Woche" and that in German such a time expression that continues into the present is used with the present tense, resulting in "Seit einer Woche bin ich hier." To the less able student, one might point out that the construction is improper, that we haven't yet learned an appropriate alternative, that we will soon come to it, but that for the time being we shall leave the sentence as is. Heresy? Revolutionary? Not if we adhere carefully to certain guidelines.

FOCUS CORRECTION

Now that we have students writing and the instructor intervening we find ourselves right back at the long-espoused interdiction against encouraging beginning FL students to write: the preponderance of errors and what to do about them all. The danger, as expressed by Lalande (1982) is that "unless all errors are identified, the faulty linguistic structures, rather than the correct ones, may become ingrained in the student's interlanguage system." (p. 140) Whether this reasoning is sound or specious is an open question and the subject of lively debate. If sound, then the writing of beginning FL students of necessity will be covered by the blood-red ink of countless corrections, and hours, instead of minutes, of conferencing time will be demanded, thereby rendering any writing project at the very least unmotivating, and most likely unfeasible. But without those multitudinous corrections do we run the risk of unwittingly promoting faulty linguistic articulation which will result in bad habits permanently imprinted on the student's brain?

The technique known as focus correction, advanced by Collins (1985b) and used extensively in native language writing classes, has demonstrated otherwise, with both young writers and old. A focus correction system encourages the instructor to focus on specific writing problems rather than to note everything that is wrong in a written piece. In this selective approach to correction, the instructor provides specific information about the criteria being

used to evaluate, and indicates clearly that only certain types of errors will be corrected.

In the beginning FL class these would be grammatical concepts and vocabulary covered to that point. Essential at the outset is clarification by the instructor and firm understanding on the part of students that there may be additional errors, but that they will be overlooked in the interest of concentrating on a few issues at one time. From a practical point of view, focus correction is less time-consuming and is truly the critical factor that enables the teacher to promote development of writing in beginning FL classes without undermining student motivation and learning. As Collins (1985a) puts it, focus correction provides for less teacher effort while producing more student learning.

Focus correction is generally more a problem of adjustment for the instructor than the student. As described by Murray (1968), a pioneer in the process writing movement.

Not correcting papers may be the hardest thing for a writing teacher to do. The errors are there and so is the virtuous feeling of a job well done as the mistakes are speared on the page. The more mistakes, the more satisfaction The teacher may have as much trouble not correcting papers as a drunk not taking a drink. It's so easy to slash through a student's paper, so fulfilling, so much fun. It does fine things for the teacher, but little for the student. Successful implementation of this strategy for handling students' written work can be effected only when we become truly learner-oriented and acknowledge that correcting every error is not the key to enhanced student learning.

An interesting analogy to the issue of what we might call "invented L2 grammar by way of L1" may be drawn to "invented spelling," a component of the whole language movement wherein young children who are just beginning to associate sounds with letters are encouraged to write. Ex., "I was sc yastr day and I cat na cm tow scow," trans. "I was sick yesterday and could not come to school" (Newman, 1984). Early childhood educator Wood (1982) addresses a familiar-sounding question raised over the advisability of encouraging invented spelling: will it interfere with learning to read and write in standard spelling? She responds, "As inventive spellers engage in experiences with standard print . . . their concept of orthography is gradually modified The learning pattern that characterizes language acquisition, as well as concept attainment in general, is

evidenced. Gradually the learner modifies rules to incorporate new experiences." (p. 707) Over time FL learners similarly integrate and apply new concepts. Errors resulting at one stage from lack of knowledge are gradually replaced by correct and appropriate expression as new concepts are learned. Documenting students' progress by having each student keep all written work in a folder for longitudinal overview confirms the validity of focus correction and alleviates concern over the development of bad habits.

ADULT LEARNING, WRITING AND VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

An additional advantage to facilitating writing skills of adult students is the increase in the amount of vocabulary they control. Cross (7), a leader in the field of adult learning, notes that tasks requiring quick insight, short-term memorization and complex interactions are best undertaken when young. As people get older, they accumulate knowledge and develop perspective and experience in the use and application of that knowledge. According to Cross, in order for a model to capitalize on the learning strengths of adults, it should deemphasize the processing of large amounts of new information emphasize the development of those tasks that require integration, interpretation, and application of knowledge. Rather than memorizing long lists of vocabulary, a discouraging experience for many adults, new terms can be more smoothly incorporated experientially with the personalized writing context providing the framework. For those students who wish to use a dictionary, the usual caveats are expounded. Students should obtain a multi-entry hardback edition. They should be taught to reduce an expression to the most concrete terms possible, and then to counter-reference the FL equivalent in order to confirm the preliminary decision. The conferencing and focus correction strategies also serve to minimize many of the pitfalls associated with dictionary use. Most importantly, adults need to be permitted to follow a self-determined course of action, whenever possible. Use of the dictionary is but one example of a student-centered activity through which the instructor can help language learning become more independent in their self-expression.

CONCLUSION

In their eagerness to express themselves accurately in writing and to gain a sense of mastery over subject matter by applying new knowledge to old experience, adult FL learners challenge themselves to promote effective in-class experiences. Involvement in the writing process demonstrates vividly that there is no "get-language-quick" scheme to be had. But, once vested in such a highly personalized and individualized endeavor, adults respond positively to the realization that language learning is a continuous process with few neatly packaged endings or beginnings. By accommodating adult learning orientations, by allowing students a voice in course planning and objectives, and by creatively confronting the risks associated with early introduction of writing, we create an environment within which adults can realize their own goals and develop a sense of mastery essential to continued interest in FL learning.

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NEW APPROACH TOWARD FOREIGN LANGUAGE TA SUPERVISION

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INTRODUCTION

As interest has increased during the past several years in teaching languages for functional use, considerable change has been noted in classroom instruction. Beginning level courses are becoming more oriented towards teaching language for communication and less organized around grammatical syllabi, and many institutions are beginning to revise their entire lower level curriculum. This new direction in language teaching brings with it a need to implement changes in TA training and supervision.

The tendency of more and more foreign language educators to envision the sequencing of materials according to functions or task universals (i.e. requesting information, complimenting, expressing agreement or disagreement) is resulting in new, and substantially expanded beginning level textbook programs becoming available. As materials and courses change to reflect this new orientation, so, too, will significant modifications need to be made in the approaches taken to the preparation and supervision of the graduate teaching assistants (TAs) who are often assigned instructional responsibilities in the affected classes. Teaching assistants who have learned the language in a traditional, teacher-centered and grammar-oriented classroom, and who have little or no experience with planning and conducting classes on their own, are often unable to cope with the demands of the proficiency-oriented syllabus. The orchestration of

diversified, small-group work, practice sessions and situational or contextualized activities simply overwhelm these inexperienced TAs. Understandably, faculty who serve as course coordinators and TA supervisors must address this issue. The American Association of University Supervisors and Coordinators has been instrumental in stimulating serious discussion and study of pedagogical questions that relate to the communicative classroom.

The creation of a new basic course structure provides an opportunity for a comprehensive revision of the guidance and training given to the graduate assistants assigned to teach these courses. The development of proficiency in teaching becomes the goal of the TA training, with all activities geared toward the development of a confident and capable instructor who is well versed in the theory and practice of teaching a language for communication.

Just as incoming language students need to be placed according to their background, so, too, may the teaching assistants need to be supervised according to their prior experiences. Those TAs in their first year will tend to need more direct guidance than the more experienced ones, thus dictating to some extent the teaching tasks and other assignments they receive.

A comprehensive approach to TA supervision and training in the proficiency-oriented classroom will likely include (1) a pre-service workshop, (2) in-service methodology courses linked to appropriate teaching assignments, and (3) systematic observations and evaluations of their performance as instructors. The use of mentors at various levels can enrich the program even more, while offering the faculty involved a unique opportunity for interaction with the TAs outside of the usual literature class setting.

PRE-SERVICE WORKSHOP

New TAs usually have no teaching experience, and are often rather frightened and intimidated by the thought of being in charge of the classroom. They have no idea how to plan for instruction, how to conduct a class, how to evaluate the performance of their students, and so on. Similarly, they often harbor a fear that they, themselves, may not have the necessary degree of control of the language that will enable them to answer

questions about the grammar," and they secretly wonder whether they can handle any disciplinary problem that might arise. A very effective way to address these concerns a priori is through a workshop that is scheduled immediately prior to the beginning of the term. This intensive pre-service workshop, usually held the week before classes start is designed to prepare the TAs for their assignments by acquainting them with the mechanics of planning, instruction, evaluation, etc. During the workshop, the new TAs are familiarized with university and departmental structure and receive a general overview of the materials to be used and the principles around which a proficiency-based classroom is organized. An introduction to the laboratory facilities and other support services may also be included. During the initial stages of the workshop, TAs also receive an explanation of the content and rationale of the training program in which they will be participating. Although the more experienced TAs may need only a short refresher workshop, they should be encouraged to work closely with the new TAs on a regular basis.

IN-SERVICE METHODOLOGY COURSES

Substantial changes in the beginning level curriculum require methodology courses that address the features of the newly designed curriculum. A course that meets two hours weekly for all first-year TAs during the fall term, and an additional one-hour course required of all TAs each term while they are in the graduate program can provide the structure necessary for an organized presentation of basic teaching principles, course material previews, and the guidance necessary for a successful teaching and learning experience for the TAs. The coordinator may hold weekly meetings for the new TAs in which they receive a lesson guide and go over the instructional objectives and procedures for the upcoming week. Ideally, the new TAs will be able to work with an experienced instructor during their first term, thus allowing them to observe, assist and participate in the class on a regular basis in a team-teaching situation, as well as teach one day a week on their own, using the materials previewed in the methods course. In this manner, a mentoring process is established as an integral part of their preparation. During the first week of instruction for each unit, for example, the TAs can be assigned the task of conducting reinforcement activities that focus on the listening skill and can conduct a variety of communicative

exercises for paired and group work. During the second week of instruction the TAs might be asked to focus their energies on developing reading activities based on authentic materials and contextualized activities that could serve as a review of the lesson prior to the chapter test. This approach enhances the learning experience for the student, and builds self-confidence in the TAs, who are working with materials already familiar to them. When a TA works with several classes, the repetition of a single lesson also helps instill confidence in their performance and provides an opportunity for constant improvement.

The two-hour methodology course, which is designed to provide a theoretical base upon which to build practical experience, will most likely require a text such as Alice Omaggio's Teaching Language in Context (Omaggio, 1986). The objectives for this course should reflect the same orientation towards performance as does the new proficiency-based curriculum. For example, the course objectives might state that graduate teaching assistants would be able to:

1. organize an instructional sequence around a list of task universals;
2. use a variety of contextualized activities to practice specific grammatical structures and lexical units;
3. prepare classroom materials that will lead to the development of speaking, listening, reading, and writing ability and a greater awareness of characteristics of the target language's culture;
4. demonstrate several different approaches appropriate for the evaluation of oral skills;
5. demonstrate several different approaches appropriate for the evaluation of reading and writing skills;
6. develop activities for paired and group work based on authentic materials;
7. apply effective correction strategies for student errors.

Necessary components of the course include practice in writing objectives in terms of language functions, preparing lesson plans, maintaining good records for student evaluation, and developing techniques for teaching dialogues and vocabulary and learning to elicit and rate samples of oral language. Given the practical nature of the course, each graduate student should be expected to do at least two demonstration lessons: one

grammatical in nature and the other lexical. These presentations should reflect an orientation towards proficiency, and should be part of a lesson plan that includes the functional objectives, the contexts, the design for the presentation, an example of a controlled-type exercise and another of a guided communicative activity for paired or group work. This particular assignment is designed to help the TAs reduce the emphasis on grammar explanation and keep in mind that the class is student-centered and that the teacher is a facilitator.

The two-hour methods course should include several lessons on techniques for oral evaluations. In-class practices may be provided in which the TAs listen to sample interviews and evaluate them on their own. They can then compare and discuss their evaluations with those of their fellow TAs and the course director. Although the purpose of this activity is not to produce certified oral proficiency interviewers and raters, it will provide experience in conducting interviews and assessing students' speaking skills in the classroom. As a result of this preparation, the graduate students develop a degree of familiarity and confidence with the actual evaluative process they will use in the classes they teach.

Each term (semester or trimester) a one-hour methods course for both new and returning graduate teaching assistants can provide experience in the preparation of proficiency-based materials which are directly linked to the course that they are teaching. In the fall, the once-weekly session can provide an overview of the year's activities. In the spring it may be used to review plans for the current term and to preview the coming summer and fall terms. The additional preparation and training provided by these one-hour courses allow the graduate students to enter the term when they teach their own course with a better idea of what needs to be accomplished and a solid background in how to use proficiency-based materials in the classroom.

Although the TAs have received a great deal of training by the end of their first year, they still may not be ready to assume complete control and responsibility for their classes, especially given the multiple-section courses offered at the beginning levels. The nature of these courses requires that homogeneity be maintained across sections, thus allowing for minimal deviation with respect to content and instructional strategies. The course supervisor or coordinator in this situation provides the framework, in the form of the course syllabus and the major exams, and

allows the teaching assistants to have an experience somewhat different from the highly structured guidance given to the first-year TAs. The experienced TAs should be in charge of the day-to-day responsibilities of their course such as the development of quizzes and supplementary activities, record keeping, student conferences, etc. TAs at this level may also be given the opportunity to provide materials for use by all staff members, thus building on experience gained during their initial two-hour methods course.

The course supervisor should hold meetings as needed with the novice teachers, although a good deal of the coordination can take place through the use of memos and day-to-day conversations with the individual TAs. The majority of these one-on-one chats will most likely concern confusion over university policies and regulations, problems with student discipline or instructional problems regarding special learners. The role of the coordinator in this situation is that of advisor, resource person, trouble-shooter, and in many cases, listener. The TAs at this level need to begin to make some decisions that will have an effect on all sections of the course and take responsibility for those decisions.

The proficiency-oriented classroom, with its group and paired work, situational exercises, and other student-centered activities provides a unique opportunity for the experienced TAs who have worked with faculty mentors during the first year. In the spring term, the new TAs may be assigned to team-teach with a more experienced TA, working once again with the listening, reading and communicative exercises used during their first term teaching assignment. Since the new TAs are using materials that are already somewhat familiar to them, they tend to feel more confident and are able to expand upon their previous presentations. At the same time, they are once again working with a more experienced individual; in this case someone who has gone through the program before them. By this point in their professional development, the experienced TAs have the background and the confidence necessary to begin to serve as role models for others. This experience also reinforces the need for and the importance of cooperation among colleagues, which in turn helps ensure a smoothly functioning program.

OBSERVATION AND EVALUATION

A very important aspect of any course or training program is effective evaluation of student performance. Since the teaching assistants are involved in classroom teaching, methods course work and team-teaching, the evaluation procedures employed need to address all three areas.

As one of the requirements of the two-hour methods course, the new TAs should prepare a final project in which they are responsible for the development of an entire unit of materials. This type of project is more appropriate than a written end-of-term exam because the language coordinator is able to see exactly how well the graduate students are able to apply the principles that have been presented and discussed in the course. The effectiveness of their project may then become one of the key factors in the determination of teaching assignments in subsequent terms.

Both new and experienced graduate teaching assistants may gain progressive experience in the preparation of materials through the one-hour course that they take each term. The grade for this course may be based upon written observations by the TAs of courses at both the beginning and intermediate levels, participation in other classes through warm-ups and cultural lessons, and preparation of certain materials for classroom and/or testing purposes.

In order to ensure that the TAs are progressing appropriately, the coordinator should observe each one at least twice during the term. The TA supervisor may also encourage the TAs to have additional observations made by other faculty members, especially those serving as mentors. After each observation, a written evaluation should be prepared and then discussed, with both parties having an opportunity to respond to each other's comments (see Appendix A). Since course observations are also required in the methods courses, there is an opportunity for continual feedback on many levels. Both the new and the more experienced TAs may well observe each other, as well as their "mentor" professors. Depending on the course requirements, the TAs may write out extensive observation reports with commentary on techniques observed and their reaction to them, or use the form that is used when they, themselves, are observed by the coordinator/ supervisor. In all cases, the observations need to be used as a learning tool and be treated

as another way to help the TAs improve their classroom effectiveness.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

TAs with training such as that described here are capable of contributing to the department in a variety of ways. The well-balanced presentation of theory and practical applications in the methods courses provides each TA with the basic skills necessary to teach the beginning level courses efficiently and professionally. Beyond the teaching assignment, TAs, who have participated in this type of program tend to work especially well with small conversation courses or, if they are native speakers, as cultural and linguistic resource persons in courses taught by senior faculty; once again introducing the possibility of mentoring. While all TAs may help in the tutorial center or language laboratory, they may also cover a class session for professors away from campus. Increased opportunities to teach during the summer terms and to participate in highly intensive programs or special intra-campus summer exchanges may also accrue to the teaching assistants who are better qualified to function effectively with less supervision.

While not all foreign language departments have the flexibility to implement the curricular changes mentioned here, many universities do rely on graduate teaching assistants to do the bulk of the teaching at the beginning levels. This fact alone dictates that those in charge of coordination and supervision provide the best possible training for these future foreign language professionals so that they, and more importantly, their students, receive optimum instruction in the foreign language. Finally, the concept of designing a student-centered classroom is not restricted to the foreign language classroom. TAs who understand these principles will undoubtedly become more effective teachers, regardless of the content of the courses they teach. Thus, a TA supervision program which incorporates pre-service workshops, methodology courses linked to the in-service teaching assignments, systematic observations and evaluations and mentoring can do much to provide the profession with instructors who are well-prepared to staff proficiency-oriented classrooms at all levels of instruction.

APPENDIX A

TA Teaching Evaluation Form

Instructor:

Course:

Observer:

Date:

1. The warm-up was effective and well-organized. 1) Excellent. 2) Satisfactory. 3) Improvement needed.
Comment:
2. Organization was evident throughout the lesson, with smooth transitions.
1) Consistently. 2) Mostly.
3) Occasionally. 4) Infrequently.
Comment:
3. The use of Spanish and English was suitable for the different situations.
1) Always. 2) Mostly.
3) Occasionally. 4) Infrequently.
Comment:
4. Explanations and activities were clear, brief, accurate, and fast-paced.
1) Always. 2) Usually.
3) Occasionally. 4) Lacking.
Comment:
5. The use of time, the chalk board, and other teaching materials reflected a positive presentation of each aspect of the lesson.
1) Always. 2) Usually.
3) Occasionally. 4) Lacking.
Comment:
6. The use of corrective feedback was effective and positive.
1) Always. 2) Usually.
3) Occasionally. 4) Lacking.
Comment:

7. The activities represented a good variety and matched the level and interest of the students.

1) Always. 2) Usually.
3) Occasionally. 4) Lacking.

Comment:

8. The entire class was involved in interactive ways.

1) Frequently and appropriately.
2) Often, but inappropriately at times.
3) Infrequently, but appropriately when evident.
4) Infrequently and inappropriately.
5) Never.

Comment:

9. The students clearly understood the format of the activities.

1) Always. 2) Usually. 3) Sometimes.
4) Lacking.

Comment:

10. The classroom environment was positive; the material was presented confidently and the students responded favorably.

1) Consistently. 2) Mostly.
3) Lacking.

Comment:

11. Observer's Remarks:

Signature:

12. Instructor's Remarks:

Signature:

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SCOLT:
PERSPECTIVES FOR
THE FUTURE

1990 +

SCOLT: PERSPECTIVES FOR THE FUTURE 1990+

Robert M. Terry
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On this twenty-fifth anniversary of SCOLT, let's take a few minutes to look ahead and determine where the organization is headed and where it should be going.¹

This is truly a time to feel good about being part of a regional organization whose goal is to join together the various state organizations in the South to provide links between the states and to strengthen the role of foreign language education.

This is also a time to look at ourselves critically and to ask several important questions:

1. Has SCOLT in fact carried out its primary objective to advance the "learning and teaching of languages at all levels of instruction"? (SCOLT, 1986)
2. Has it worked to its fullest in fostering close ties not only between ACTFL, the national umbrella organization, but more importantly between us and our constituents on the different state and local levels?
3. What can SCOLT do to strengthen its role, its position, and its impact? This is perhaps the most important of the three asked. In other words, is SCOLT simply going to continue to promote the study of foreign languages, to talk about and research the status quo, or will it begin to address

¹Speech delivered October 10, 1989, at the Twenty-fifth Southern Conference on Language Teaching Anniversary Celebration, Little Rock, Arkansas.

the needs of foreign language educators and students?

Let us not be complacent. If one takes the last question seriously and if it is heeded as a challenge, the status quo should no longer be acceptable. There has been a strong resurgence of interest in foreign language study. Enrollment in our courses is at an all-time high. More and more states are beginning to implement high school and college foreign language graduation requirements as well as college entrance requirements. There is more and more talk and action to reintroduce foreign languages in the elementary schools. At least foreign language study is not still relegated to the category of "frill courses for the elite." The profession has received favorable press since the 1979 publication of Strength through Wisdom, the report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. Articles have recently appeared about the importance of foreign languages and global education in the nation's business schools: "2nd language a salient business tool" by Sylvia Porter, and "B-Schools get a Global Vision" in Fortune magazine. Federal funding for our programs has been secured although often tacked on to bills for science and mathematics . . . but we have gotten funding. But is it enough?

Twenty-five years is a long time. SCOLT is not the "new kid on the block." There have been many changes in foreign language education over the past twenty-five years. There are some which are frankly better forgotten. Other changes have moved our field to its current position of high visibility and importance in the complete education of today's youth. There are indeed developments for which we can be congratulated.

But the task is assuredly not over; it has only just begun. As previously asked, is SCOLT simply going to continue to promote the study of foreign languages, to talk about and research the status quo, or is it to begin to address the needs of foreign language educators and students? Simply stated another way, are we going to continue to **react** to existing conditions or are we going to **proact**--to move ahead and address our specific needs and concerns?

The key role of a regional organization is to provide leadership for its affiliates--leadership through cooperation. This cooperation moves in two directions: upward toward our national foreign language organization, ACTFL (or perhaps more

accurately, ACTFL and the AAT's), and downward toward the state and local affiliates. We are indeed a key link in this chain of command, and, as trite as the saying may be, a chain is as strong as its weakest link. Complacency with our past successes should not cause us to relent. SCOLT has already shown a leadership role. Unfortunately, however, to cite one particular instance, its effort has not been given its true importance. The following description illustrates the point.

On January 31, 1985, in Las Vegas, representatives from the five regional conferences were welcomed as full voting members of the ACTFL Executive Council. At that meeting, the ACTFL by-laws were changed to reflect the increase in membership of the Executive Council from ten to fifteen, and the term of office of Council members was increased from three to four years. This addition to the Executive Council came about as a result of ACTFL's having appointed three different Regional Task Force Liaison coordinators who worked for several years with each of the regional conferences in an effort to strengthen its ties with both the regionals and with state affiliates, and primarily to address the five priority areas singled out for special attention in the field of foreign language education: teacher education, curriculum and materials development, public awareness, foreign language proficiency, and research. Each regional conference appointed a task force which was to work on each of the priority areas. SCOLT's topic was research. During my term as the Task Force Liaison, SCOLT was the only organization that carried out its charge, and that it did largely on its own and with impressive initiative. Through seeking funding from the Exxon Education Foundation, SCOLT was the first regional conference (and I might add the only one) to publish the results of its work in Research Within Reach: Research-guided Responses to the Concerns of Foreign Language Teachers, under the editorship of Thomas C. Cooper. In the foreword to this book, Professor Cooper (1985, xii) states: "Research Within Reach is a unique project. It represents an extended cooperative effort between a regional and national foreign language association, as well as cooperation among the various universities at which the task force members are employed."

Now to the real point: listen to the title of this SCOLT publication--Research Within Reach: Research-guided Responses to CONCERNS of Foreign Language Teachers (my emphasis). SCOLT did not react; it proacted. Of course, we have concerns.

The 1981 Conference on Professional Priorities held in Boston in conjunction with the ACTFL Annual Meeting singled out the five priorities. The regional task forces were charged with defining significant issues in its area, proposing directions for the profession and preparing a final report establishing realistic goals. SCOLT not only reacted to the charge, but gave us a forward look at one of our major concerns and not a simple state-of-the-art report. As Professor Cooper (vii) states: "... we decided first to discover from practitioners in the field what their most urgent questions were about foreign language learning and teaching. We then attempted to provide the answers by citing applicable research." Here is an instance where ingenuity addressed a specific concern, since "... most of the studies in the foreign language education are undertaken to satisfy the curiosity of and to benefit the investigators themselves, rather than to address concerns that actual classroom teachers have about language learning and pedagogy" (Cooper, 1985, vii). You are all familiar with the saying "Too many chiefs and no Indians." In reference to foreign language education for entirely too long, this might be stated more aptly as "Too many Indians and no chief." We must have a leader.

On the national level, ACTFL is that leader. On the regional level in the Southeast, SCOLT should be the leader. But none of us can act alone. ACTFL has strengthened its ties with its regional and state constituents by holding joint annual meetings (it met jointly with SCOLT in 1972, again in 1987 in Atlanta with over 2000 people in attendance, and will again in Nashville in 1990); by including regional representatives on its Executive Council; through the pending publication of its Leadership for Foreign Language Organizations: A Handbook.

An important question to ask is whether the regional organizations have been strengthening ties with their own affiliates? Has a concerted effort been made to create a strong network between SCOLT and the state organizations? Have effective lines of communications been established? Has SCOLT kept in touch with its affiliates throughout the year? Has it remained too insular with its annual meetings and not given teachers throughout its region the opportunity to attend and profit from these conferences?

In the Introduction to the leadership handbook are the statements: "The chapters offer suggestions and experience-based looks at many aspects of the effective management,

administration and running of state, district or regional foreign language associations. [...] We hope that [this handbook] will provide the basic structure around which a 'user's guide to effective leadership' may be built for each affiliate. [...] We . . . hope that this handbook will help strengthen and increase the ties between the national foreign language association and its constituent members, for ACFTL's strong leadership comes from strong member organizations" (Terry, n.d., i). In selecting the authors for the various chapters, Genelle Morain, editor of The Beacon for the Foreign Language Association of Georgia was asked to contribute a chapter, and she willingly wrote "The State Newsletter: Voice for Excellence."

We have another opportunity to highlight the outstanding contributions from our region. ACTFL has instituted the inclusion of selected presentations from regional conferences in its Annual Meeting program. These presentations are selected by each regional conference as "the best of . . ." and are recognized as such in the Annual Meeting program. Could this same structure be implemented in the SCOLT Annual Meeting?

ACTFL is making a strong, concerted effort to provide leadership and cooperative ventures between it, at the national level, and its constituent members. But the strength of these efforts goes two ways. What is SCOLT currently doing to maintain such a cooperative effort with its own affiliates? What else needs to be done?

Most certainly, SCOLT's mission is a reflection of ACTFL's mission:

The mission of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages is to promote and foster the study of languages and cultures as an integral component of American education and society and to provide effective leadership for the improvement of teaching and learning at all levels of instruction in all languages. ACTFL accomplishes its mission through programs and projects that range from those influencing educational policies at the national level to those furnishing practical assistance to classroom teachers (ACTFL, 1987, 333).

SCOLT needs to take a strong look at the Central States Conference on Foreign Language Teaching (CSC) and its admirable efforts to provide links among the state organizations that are included in its membership. Central States is assuredly

a model for all other regionals. There is an excellent working relationship with the state affiliates and their leadership. CSC is a member of all state organizations included within its area. In addition, there are designated state representatives or liaisons of CSC in every state who facilitate communication throughout the year. At its Annual Meeting, Central States makes an effort to identify and recognize the state organizations through providing breakfasts for the presidents of the various state affiliates and by providing informative seminars on leadership or inviting nationally-recognized speakers to address them. Edward Scebold, Executive Director of ACTFL, and J. David Edwards from the Joint National Committee on Languages, for example. Finally, CSC holds joint conferences with various state organizations, offering them a financial rebate for each member of the host state organization attending the conference, with the monies returned to the treasury of that state organization (Thrush).

Part of the title of the SCOLT publication, Research Within Reach addresses a charge not only to SCOLT but to all who have made foreign language education their career: We **must** begin to provide Responses to the Concerns of Foreign Language Teachers. We **must** support and encourage the efforts to improve not only the profession in general but our own individual yet essential roles in foreign language teaching.

What is meant by "support"? Some synonyms of this verb are to "strengthen, to sustain, to subsidize, to maintain, to advance, to advocate, to promote." In a nutshell, here is my charge to regional organizations:

- **to strengthen** the support of our affiliates by offering them strong leadership and a supportive sense of purpose;
- **to sustain** our faith in the value of what we are doing and to sustain, if not improve, our working relationship with our affiliates;
- **to subsidize**, financially when possible, and with expert resource personnel, innovative programs within our region;
- **to maintain** the current impetus in foreign language education, paying particular attention to the concerns of teachers;
- **to advance** our own leadership role and that of our local and state affiliates by creating a strong system of networks both within the region and between us and ACTFL;

- to **advocate** change in the profession when and where change is needed, based on the concerns of its practitioners, locally, statewide, regionally and nationally;
 - to **promote** the value of the study of another language.
- The rest is up to each and every one of us.

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